DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 400 676 FL 023 982

AUTHOR	Terry, Robert M., Ed.
TITLE	Dimension '96: Global Access through Languages. Selected Proceedings of the Joint Conference of the Southern Conference on Language Teaching and the Alabama Association of Foreign Language Teachers (Mobile, Alabama, 1996).
INSTITUTION	Southern Conference on Language Teaching.
REPORT NO	ISBN-1-883640-05-9
PUB DATE	96
NOTE	106p.
PUB TYPE	Collected Works - Conference Proceedings (021)
EDRS PRICE	MF01 Plus Postage. PC Not Available from EDRS.
DESCRIPTORS	*Business Communication; Class Activities; Classroom Techniques; Cultural Awareness; *Cultural Education; Culture Conflict; Educational Strategies; Educational Technology; Elementary Secondary Education; Japanese; *Language Teachers; *Listening Comprehension; Multimedia Instruction; Program Development; Protocol Analysis; *Reading Difficulties; Reading Instruction; Second Language Instruction; *Second Languages; Sex Differences; Teacher Certification
IDENTIFIERS	Language Across the Curriculum

ABSTRACT

Six conference papers are presented in this volume. They include: "Living Civilization: a Theoretical Model for Using Task-Based Activities To Combine the Teaching of Language and Culture" (Sharon Gwinn Scinicariello); "Foreign Language Reading versus Understanding: Using Think-Aloud Protocols To Identify L2 Reading Problems" (Carol M. Brown); "Creating a K-12 Japanese Language Teacher Certification Program" (Ryoko Kubota, Audrey L. Heining-Boynton); "Student Use of Interactive Multimedia Technology for Second Language Listening Comprehension" (Lara Mangiafico); "Gender and Foreign Cultures in Business Language Classes" (Anna Gramberg); and "Foreign Language Across the Curriculum : Achieving Language Proficiency Through Reading" (Judith H. Cox, Dominique Linchet). (MSE)

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Global Access Through Languages

Sharon Guinn Scimeciello
Carol M. Brown
Ryuko Kubota
Lara Mangiafico
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Judith H. Cox
Dominique Finchet

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Robert M. Terry
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Selected Proceedings of the 1996 Joint Conference of the Southern Conference on Language Teaching and the Midwest Association of Foreign Language Teachers

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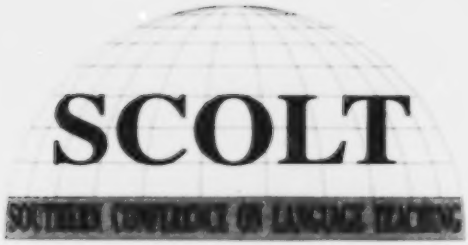

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Valdosta State University
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Telephone 912 333 7358. Facsimile 912 333 7389.

**This book was composed on
desk-top publishing facilities at
Valdosta State University
Valdosta, Georgia**

Library of Congress Catalogue Number 06-068770
ISBN 1-883640-05-9

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Review and Acceptance Procedures SCOLT *Dimension*

The procedures through which articles are reviewed and accepted for publication in the proceedings volume of the Southern Conference on Language Teaching (SCOLT) actually begin wiht the submission of a proposal, including an abstract, to present a session at the SCOLT Annual Conference. Once the proposal is received, it is read by members of the Program Committee.

After sessions have been accepted, presenters are contacted by the Editor
and invited to submit an article for consideration for publication in *Dimension*, the annual volume of conference proceedings. Copies of the publication guidelines are sent to the presenters who indicate an interest in publishing in the annual volume. Prospective authors submit four copies of the manuscript. The articles are then sent, with the title page containing the authors' names and affiliations removed, to the nationally prominent SCOLT Editorial Board, and each article is reviewed by at least three of these specialists. Normally, articles are sent to reviewers who have expertise in the area treated by the article. The reviewers are asked to make one of three recommendations: (1) publish as is, (2) publish after rewriting, or (3) do not publish.

Once these recommendations are received by the Editor, he reads each article and makes the final decision whether or not to publish it. As a result of these procedures, at least three individuals decide whether or not to include
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Introduction

In 1996, the Southern Conference on Language Teaching (SCOLT) met for the first time in many years in Alabama, in Mobile. This was a joint meeting with the Alabama Association of Foreign Language Teachers (AAFLT). Reports heard both during the conference and after it indicate that it was a great success—stimulating sessions and workshops, high attendance, including many first-timers attendees, interesting exhibits—not to mention the usual networking, sharing, and collegiality.

The theme of the 1996 conference was Global Access through Languages, a theme that reflects our increasing awareness of the ever-shrinking world in this age of ever-increasing interdependence and understanding. We are now seeing a strong focus on the integral and inseparable role that culture plays in language learning. The newly-released national standards, *Standards for Foreign Language Learning: Preparing for the 21st Century*, clearly reflect this very same theme.

Dimension '96 itself is global in scope, with articles that range from culture and civilization to technology to reading to issues of gender in business language courses to teacher preparation in a less commonly taught language. These same topics (along with many others) must be addressed, studied, and acted upon for our current foreign language pedagogy to experience continued and even more success in the twenty-first century—a period of time that is clearly and frighteningly near.

In the first article, Sharon Guinn Scinicariello talks about "Living Civilization: A Theoretical Model for Using Task-Based Activities to Combine the Teaching of Language and Content," that is to promote cultural competence, language acquisition, and critical thinking. Thesecomponents are then combined to create "living civilization" activities that allow the learner to acquire factual information (particularly history, literature, and arts), an understanding of how the target culture views that information, and enhanced language skills.

In the second chapter, "Foreign Language Reading Versus Understanding: Using Think-Aloud Protocols to Identify L2 Reading Problems," Carol M. Brown investigates the types of inferences that foreign language students make in both French and English when they are reading a narrative text. She uses Trabasso's "think-aloud" protocol, in which students read a text aloud and think aloud about how they understood each sentence. This protocol then becomes an important diagnostic tool, because teachers can evaluate different texts, diagnose different types of inferences made by both good and poor readers, and prepare effective pre-reading activities.

Ryuko Kubota and Audrey Heining-Boynton, in "Creating a K-12 Japanese Language Teacher Certification Program," give us great insight in responding to state, regional, and national demands for qualified K-12 teachers of Japanese by developing a complete program for teacher certification. There are clearly certain special arrangements that must be made in developing the prospective teacher's proficiency in Japanese, in addition to the demands imposed by limited course offerings, library holdings, and the need for technological assistance. This article shares the steps that were necessary to create such a well-articulated program.

"Student Use of Interactive Multimedia Technology for Second Language Listening Comprehension" is by Lara Mangiafico, who has carried out research in the area of interactive multimedia and second language acquisition, a focus that up to this point has been rather limited. She has attempted to discover students' learning strategies and actions when they use an interactive multimedia program on their own. Yet, even with the narrow scope of this particular project, there are some quite clear traits and strategies that stand out as helpful or detrimental to a learner's success in using such programs.

Ana-Katrin Gramberg approaches the topic of how gender issues are presented in high school and college foreign language classrooms in her article, "Gender and Foreign Cultures in Business Language Classes." Focusing particularly on Germany, Gramberg examines the role and position of women in the business world and then discusses the representations and roles of women in business textbooks, magazines, advertising, and other sources of information.

In the final chapter of this volume, "Foreign Language Across the Curriculum: Achieving Language Proficiency through Reading," Judith H. Cox and Dominique Linchet talk about the specific strategies that can be used for teaching reading at different levels of foreign language study. Since foreign language across the curriculum (FLAC) has been a growing area of interest in the past ten years, students now have an opportunity to continue their study of foreign language with alternatives to the relatively traditional concentration on literature courses. FLAC allows students to use their foreign language skills in other disciplinary areas.

The articles in *Dimension '96* clearly reflect the current direction of foreign language pedagogy in the United States—the direction that will lead us to Global Access through Languages. This direction will also lead us toward the twenty-first century and toward meeting all of the national standards in foreign language learning.

Acknowledgements

The Southern Conference on Language Teaching (SCOLT) would like to recognize the invaluable contributions of Valdosta State University in the preparation of this volume. But itscontributions go far beyond this publication, because its strong commitment and support of the organization reflect the importance that this institution places on foreign language education. Lee Bradley of Valdosta State University, the Executive Director of SCOLT, receives special acknowledgement for his devoted concern for professionalism and his critical eye in the final preparation for publication of *Dimension*.

Special recognition goes to the outstanding group of nationally recognized experts who comprise our Editorial Board. It is only with their scrutiny and insightful suggestions and recommendations that this volume is now appearing, for they have given clear direction to the various authors and to me as Editor to ensure that what is reported is clear and accurate.

—Robert M. Terry
Editor, *Dimension '96*

1

Living Civilization: A Theoretical Model for Using Task-Based Activities to Combine the Teaching of Language and Content

Sharon Guinn Scinicariello
Case Western Reserve University

Virtually every discussion of the teaching of language begins with the affirmation that language cannot be effectively taught without the study of culture.[1] Indeed, Rivers (1992: vii) assumes the inseparability of the two when she lists as the "three central concerns" of her department at Harvard, "language and culture, literature, and linguistics." It has also been assumed that the study of language promotes cross-cultural understanding (Byrnes 1991: 205), an assumption often used to justify or encourage foreign language study (Kramsch 1989). Although the language profession still seems to have difficulty producing cultural awareness in language learners (Morain 1974; Hadley 1993)—even after the numerous presentations, articles, and books that have appeared on the subject—students and teachers rightfully continue to set cultural competence as a goal of language learning. As Kramsch (1988: 63) says, "The communicative revolution and, in its trail, the proficiency movement have made clear that languages are learned in a cultural context, that is both the internal and the external context of communication." But what constitutes cultural competence and how can it be taught?

Defining Culture, Civilization, and Cultural Competence

The distinction that Brooks (1974: 27) makes between culture, "the distinctive life-way of a people," and civilization, "the flowering of the cultural life-way of a people into varied and refined patterns of thought, belief, action, and esthetic expression," was not generally made in the classroom prior to the 1960s. Culture meant civilization, the history and arts of a society. Teachers now believe with Seelye (1984: 26) that "all aspects of the life of man, from folktales to carved whales" should be included in cultural instruction, and they work to integrate "little c" culture and language instruction. But how are "Big C" and "little c" cultural tied together? How does a teacher help students acquire factual information and then move beyond it to a deeper understanding of a culture? Hadley summarizes the numerous theoretical models, cultural inventories, and goal statements which have been proposed and refined in the last thirty years to help teachers define and teach culture, but she notes that "bridges between these theoretical models and the classroom have been difficult to construct" (1993: 366).

The principal difficulty in the teaching of culture is its dual nature, exemplified in Brooks' "culture" and "civilization" dichotomy. Cultural instruction must include both "Big C" and "little c," but cultural competence is also both knowledge and performance (Kramsch 1989), cognitive and affective. A typical statement of the knowledge/performance duality is found in the recently published *AATF Framework for Cultural Competence* (AATF 1995) which consists of two sections, "understanding culture" and "knowledge of French-speaking societies." The subcategories of the first section illustrate the affective/cognitive duality by stating that cultural competence includes "empathy toward other cultures" and the "ability to observe and analyze a culture."

Another problem is "coverage," the identification of what cultural knowledge to include. Cultural competence includes the acquisition of factual knowledge about the target society, some of which has traditionally been taught as "civilization." Lafayette (1988: 49) lists thirteen goals for the teaching of culture, four of which fall into the Brooks' definition of "civilization":

1. Recognize/explain major geographical monuments.
2. Recognize/explain major historical events.
3. Recognize/explain major institutions (administrative, political, religious, educational, etc.).
4. Recognize/explain major "artistic" monuments (architecture, arts, literature).

The *AATF Framework* is less extensive, categorizing knowledge into seven areas, four of which are usually seen as "Big C": (1) social institutions; (2) geography and the environment; (3) history; (4) literature and the arts. However, the AATF *Syllabus of Competence* (Murphy et al. 1989: 15) is more prescriptive when it defines "basic cultural competence." For example, a minimally competent teacher "can discuss the present significance of the historic periods, prominent personalities and cultural achievements in France since the Middle Ages, and in the French-speaking world since the 18th century." To fulfill this goal, one must have a broad knowledge of "Big C" culture, presumably acquired in undergraduate language, literature, and civilization courses. Note, too, that factual knowledge is not sufficient; learners must go beyond the facts to an understanding of the significance of the facts and how they relate to the society's values, attitudes, and practices. Factual knowledge is only the first step in the construction of a frame of reference which the learner needs in order to perform, i.e., use language meaningfully, in a contextually appropriate manner. Henning (1993: 25) states the relationship succinctly when she writes, "Without an understanding of the historical development of social, political, and economic institutions, or the sources of a foreign culture's values, practices and attitudes, of course, it is difficult to interpret intelligently what one reads." One could make the same statement about understanding target language conversation, film, and television programs.

Certainly teaching to meet such complex goals is extremely difficult, and in the foreign language classroom the difficulty is exacerbated by at least two other factors. First, internalizing a new grammatical and lexical system is such an enormous task that its demands may exhaust the processing abilities of the beginning language learner (Byrnes 1991: 207). Second, textbooks, which usually provide the substance of beginning and intermediate language instruction, are written, published, and used within constraints that prevent them from modeling an integrated approach to the teaching of language and culture. Textbooks are usually written by teams that rarely include a specialist in the teaching of culture. Publishers want to ensure that authors do not include topics, issues, or authentic materials that may in any way offend potential buyers of their materials. Teachers on selection committees look for texts that portray culture as they have experienced or learned it (Kramsch 1988).

Immersion in the target culture through study abroad is not a solution to the problem either. Even if it were feasible to conduct all language instruction within the target culture, teachers and students would still need to come together in a structured learning environment because it provides a place "where conscious parallels can be drawn, where language can be

explicitly linked to its meaning in a particular sociocultural and historical context, and where disparate linguistic or cultural phenomena can be brought together and attached to more abstract principles of both base (C1) and target (C2) language and culture" (Kramsch 1989: 6).

The Ideal and Reality of Civilization Instruction

How does one teach to help learners acquire linguistic competence, a broad factual knowledge base, and the ability to use their factual knowledge to understand and perform in the target culture? Henning (1993) outlines an ideal curriculum which integrates language, culture, and literature at every level to meet the needs not only of language majors but also of students seeking to function in the global workplace. Synchronic culture, i.e., contemporary society's values, beliefs, behaviors, and structures, is studied comparatively at elementary, intermediate, and advanced levels in the language courses; the intermediate and advanced courses are, in fact, organized around societal units or institutions. Diachronic courses, called "introductory" but taught at the third-year college level, stress significant issues within historical periods. The use of literary texts in these courses combines the development of linguistic competence, interpretive ability, and cultural knowledge. Finally, in what is probably the last undergraduate year, what has been learned in separate courses is synthesized in problem-oriented seminars where the cognitive and affective, knowledge and performance aspects of cultural competence are integrated with language use and textual interpretation.

Morain's "megaplan" (1974) earlier addressed the need to teach both factual knowledge and the tools for going beyond the facts to cross-cultural understanding. Culture is taught during a nine-month course, effectively a third of the students' credit hours during the year, which leads to a summer study abroad experience. The focus is on the explanation of cultural facts, the linking of factual knowledge with cross-cultural understanding. This focus is made explicit in the first of the six planned modules, "Cross-Cultural Understanding," taught in English to students of all languages, through which students become acquainted with the theoretical framework of cultural studies. The other modules are language specific. The second, "Language as a Social Tool," develops students' sensitivity to the cultural content of discourse, builds confidence in their ability to perform within the target culture, and teaches them some techniques—mini-dramas and culture capsules, for example—to illustrate cultural knowledge through language during the rest of the course. Three other modules deal with geography, politics, and the arts—the traditional subject matter of civiliza-

tion courses—while a fourth focuses on folklore. All are taught as manifestations of cultural identity and lead to a deeper understanding of that identity. A final one-week seminar unites students of all languages in a comparison and discussion of the cultural themes they have explored. Although the study abroad experience is not required, students are strongly urged to use this opportunity to apply their knowledge and enhance both their linguistic and cultural competence.

The implementation of either Henning's or Morain's model poses problems at the course and departmental level. All instructors must be in agreement with the goals and methods to be used. Students must commit a large percentage of their undergraduate coursework to this instruction. Morain's plan envisages team-teaching, which is difficult to arrange and manage in most colleges and universities. In many cases materials must be created, not only because most textbooks do not conceive of culture in this fashion but also because Morain's plan assumes the use of contemporary documents and media.

Crawford-Lange and Lange (1984) avoid some of these problems in a process model in which language acquisition and culture learning interact within an individual course. In this model teachers identify a cultural theme, present cultural phenomena, and help the students verbalize their cultural perceptions. The need to verbalize their perceptions motivates student acquisition of language related to the cultural theme. Students then use the language they have acquired to verify their cultural perceptions, reflect upon their own cultural awareness, and demonstrate their language/culture proficiency. By teaching culture as a process of observing phenomena, hypothesizing about the culture from those observations, and testing those hypotheses as new sources of information are encountered, this method involves both the knowledge and performance aspects of culture. It deals with the "coverage" issue by assuming that students will frequently encounter new factual information and by teaching them how to move beyond these facts to cultural understanding. As attractive as this model may be, its authors note three limitations in its implementation: (1) textbooks are not designed to support this type of instruction and outside resources may be scarce; (2) teachers are not educated to teach with this model; and (3) the content of language teaching has traditionally been the vocabulary and structures of language, not the culture in which it is used.

All three of these models expect "Big C" and "little c" culture to be integrated with language instruction, but the current reality is that language departments relegate systematic cultural instruction to one or two "civilization" courses. Bryson and Oppenheim's (1994) survey of departments teaching undergraduate French civilization, a term used in its broadest

sense, illustrates this when it reports that the average number of French civilization courses offered within a department is 2.47, including such courses as French Cinema and Commercial French, and that civilization courses constitute 19.8% of all upper-level French course offerings. Most teaching takes place in what Lambert (1992: 285) calls "the old 'civilization' courses taught by foreign-language professors;" History of French Civilization is the most frequently offered undergraduate civilization course.

Such courses are rarely designed to teach culture in a way that emphasizes the culture-civilization and culture-language relationships or that enhances cross-cultural understanding. Only 77 of 422 (18%) respondents to Bryson and Oppenheim's survey reported that civilization courses are taught by specialists in the subject. Despite the modern emphasis on proficiency-based, communicative language instruction, French civilization is still taught primarily using textbooks, lectures, and discussions. This lecture-discussion mode is not generally the best way to enhance the learners' linguistic proficiency. Lee (1995) notes that the fundamental drawback of discussion in the foreign language classroom is that it often becomes either a series of instructor questions and student answers or a conversation between the instructor and one or two fluent speakers. Because lecture-discussion is the predominant instructional technique, what Rivers (1992: 31) states about the lecture-based literature class, that "many students interested in maintaining and further developing their language competency have found that their language skills deteriorate," is equally true of the civilization course. And, of course, there is a major drawback to the relegation of civilization instruction to even a well-conceived advanced course or series of courses: the vast majority of language students never reach this advanced level.

We need, therefore, to begin the instruction of "Big C" as well as "little c" culture at the earliest levels of language learning. We also need to integrate language acquisition with content learning at the level of the advanced civilization course. Ideally this integration would be accomplished through a comprehensive curricular model like Henning's or through the use of culture-based rather than grammar-based syllabi (Lafayette 1988), but we can certainly begin in a less radical way. What is needed is a model that incorporates "Big C" factual knowledge and cross-cultural understanding with proficiency-based classroom language teaching. The rewards for using such a model will be great. Language learners will work to achieve the communicative competence to which they aspire in a more intellectually stimulating environment; students in advanced civilization classes will have the pleasure of improving their language skills. The rest

of this paper proposes a model in which task-based activities are used to promote cultural competence and language acquisition. This model emphasizes the acquisition of the factual knowledge base traditionally attributed to civilization courses because this element of cultural competence seems to be neglected in much of the theory and practice of cultural instruction.[2] However, the model also expects teachers and learners to move beyond the facts to cross-cultural under-standing.

The "Living Civilization" Model

The term "living civilization" is used for this instruction because it is intended to enliven the typical civilization lesson or course with the intellectual excitement of learning to see the connection between civilization facts and the living culture and language being studied. It also lives because students are learning how to discover and understand civilization facts; what they learn in "living civilization" lessons will survive as they encounter and explore new information.

Underlying the "living civilization" model are five basic premises:

1. "The study of culture and the teaching of culture are acts of inquiry." (Patrikis 1988: 16)
2. Task-based activities are most likely to help learners acquire language and content together.
3. Learners need to acquire both synchronic and diachronic factual knowledge about the target culture, knowledge that they may also lack about their own culture.
4. Language learners of whatever linguistic ability can use higher-order cognitive abilities, usually called "critical thinking."
5. The target language should be used in the classroom, but culture-based tasks done outside the class may be in the learner's native language.

The first premise emphasizes the idea of process; culture is not fixed and knowable but rather a changing understanding of the world that must be continually explored. One essential element of the process is inquiry into the nature of cultural values and how they are manifested in cultural artifacts. Another element is an understanding of how to gather information, i.e., how to do research.[3] Why choose a process model? Two important reasons are given by Byrnes (1991). First, the acquisition of linguistic and cultural competence is the work of a lifetime; all that instruction can do is introduce learners to ways of attaining this goal. Second, process instruction

enables learners to continually revise their understanding as new information is acquired. In other words, information-based instruction treats culture as if it were finished and complete; process-based instruction treats culture as change and variation (Crawford-Lange and Lange 1984). Students often believe that factual knowledge of "Big C" culture is not subject to change; they must learn that the facts considered essential and society's understanding of them do evolve over time. Process learning also satisfies two of the objectives proposed by Kramsch (1989: 9) for "intercultural" teaching: (1) "developing the learner's biculturalism," and (2) incorporating the objectives of general education—intellectual excitement, relational and critical thinking, observation of and reflection on interactional processes, interpretive ability —into every level of language learning.

The second premise states that this exploration will be carried out through the accomplishment of a series of tasks. In task-based language learning students acquire and use language to accomplish a purpose unrelated to the language itself, e.g., buy a loaf of bread or state a personal opinion. Lee (1995) stresses that task-based instruction emphasizes meaningful, interactive communication. There are many different kinds of tasks. The ACTFL *Proficiency Guidelines* (ACTFL 1986) use communicative tasks to help define levels of proficiency. Galloway (1992) has constructed a series of tasks to teach cross-cultural understanding through the reading of authentic texts. These tasks, which can be easily adapted to all cultural instruction, guide the learners through four stages: (1) thinking about their own culture and probable contrasts with the target culture; (2) observing to understand basic features; (3) learning through seeking, weighing, and organizing information from the text ; (4) internalizing and reflecting upon what has been acquired in the first three stages. The "living civilization" model works by matching communicative and cross-cultural tasks.

The third premise addresses the common lament about the problem of teaching culture, and "Big C" culture in particular: "learners typically lack a whole range of facts, synchronic and diachronic, about the C2 culture and often lack such knowledge even about their own culture" (Byrnes 1991: 212). The model compensates for this lack in two ways. It assumes that the first step in learning about a culture is the acquisition of factual knowledge. Because students typically lack any sense of chronology, particularly across cultures, the model prefers that this knowledge include the order in which key events occur and the time in which key figures and institutions appear. When students lack the knowledge necessary to consciously consider their own cultural framework and then apply the same process to information about the target culture, the model expects the students to develop cultural understanding through the comparison of perceptions of a key figure, event,

or artistic production over time or by different contemporary observers within the target culture itself.

Bloom et al. (1956) categorize cognitive skills in six levels, listed here in ascending order: knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation. Activating these skills adds intellectual content to beginning and elementary language courses, and the higher-order skills are prerequisites for the attainment of language proficiency at the advanced and superior levels. It also enhances the role of language learning in general education because, as Heilenman and Kaplan (1985: 63) write, combining instruction in critical thinking with language instruction has been rare even in the first language:

> ...learning how to describe, how to narrate, and how to support opinions is a cognitive skill as well as a language-specific one. For the oral skills in particular, this is a skill that is rarely the subject of conscious academic planning. There are very few first-language units or chapters or courses devoted to the effective use of oral language at any level.

Bloom's categories closely match the steps one must take to move from factual knowledge about civilization to cross-cultural awareness. Although analysis, synthesis, and evaluation are expressed in advanced language, teachers must not limit the goals of civilization instruction to knowledge and comprehension in lower-level language courses because students' linguistic abilities are limited. The fifth premise assumes that some higher-order tasks may be done outside the classroom in the students' own language.

The essential step in the implementation of the model is the setting of an instructional goal that combines factual knowledge, the process of cultural understanding, and the contextual use of the target language. Learners will demonstrate that they have met the goal by performing a task. For example, the goal of a unit on Impressionism is the acquisition of knowledge about the characteristics of Impressionist paintings, an understanding of how these characteristics illustrate the aesthetic values of the artists involved, and the ability to describe a work of art in some detail. As a final task students will write a critique of a painting not previously studied, analyzing and evaluating this newly encountered cultural artifact in light of the knowledge and understanding acquired through a variety of subtasks.

To establish the subtasks, which will be used as class activities and homework assignments, teachers must ask a series of questions. What factual knowledge must the students have in order to reach the goal? What tasks can they do to acquire this knowledge? What tasks will help them

analyze and comprehend the relationship of the facts to the values and concerns of the target culture? What tasks will bring them to deeper cross-cultural awareness? How can the these cultural tasks be matched with communicative tasks? Which tasks are appropriate for the students' abilities in the target language?

Finally, the teacher must gather the resources needed by the learners to complete the tasks. "Big C" cultural information is easily found in encyclopedias and other library materials. Documentaries on videotape, particularly those intended for native speakers of the language, can be obtained from the distributors of educational materials, through such broadcast services as Deutsche Welle, and through cultural service agencies like FACSEA. Within the past two years the World Wide Web has become an increasingly rich source of cultural information. When the resources are in the target language, the teacher needs to provide supporting materials so that the combination of linguistic input and cultural information does not overwhelm and frustrate learners. If, for example, students are to gather adjectives used in a videotaped documentary to describe Impressionist painting, a checklist of possibilities can be prepared for them to use while watching the tape; they will listen attentively to hear which words are used in the narration. If the resources to be used have no explanatory text in the target language, e.g., pictures of buildings representative of an architectural style or musical recordings, students will need to have some vocabulary and structures used to describe these examples. When the resource materials are in the students' native language, questions that help guide them through the process of information gathering and analysis can be in the target language, helping them to make the transition from the use of their native language outside of class to the use of the target language to complete the main task of the lesson.

Because many "living civilization" tasks are done by groups of students, it is also vital that the instructor plan how the students' learning will be evaluated. Di Pietro's (1987) "strategic interaction" approach provides a useful model for the classroom management and evaluation of cooperative, task-based learning. Di Pietro places students in situations, called scenarios, in which they must solve a problem. He suggests a tripartite system of evaluation in which teacher, peers, and the individual evaluate the quality of the performance using such categories as role portrayal, cultural conventions, originality, general intelligibility, grammatical accuracy, pronunciation, use of vocabulary, and use of teacher help. In the "living civilization" classroom, a similar system might use such categories as

demonstration of factual knowledge, accuracy of depiction of cultural values, depth of cultural analysis, linguistic accuracy, and use of contextually appropriate language.

Examples of "Living Civilization" Activities

Students at the beginning level are learning to express identity and location. They are also learning to ask and answer questions and narrate simple activities in the present. An appropriate instructional goal at this level is to acquire factual knowledge about people important to the civilization of the target culture and to understand what makes a "hero" in a culture. The instructional task is to assume the role of an important person in a television interview. One subtask that combines cultural understanding and language learning requires that students name several key figures of their own culture and list with the teacher's help the adjectives used to describe them. They then give reasons why these people are important; this may need to be done as homework in the native language. Next they either choose or are assigned an important figure in the target culture and told to gather information about him or her. Some of this research can be done in the native language, but the teacher should also supply target-language resources at the appropriate language level, e.g., elementary school history texts, so that students can look for the same language they have already used to describe the heroes of their own culture. Two more tasks prepare them for the final role-play. First, they prepare a simple narration of their person's life, concentrating on what has made that person important to the target culture. Second, they prepare questions that they will use as interviewers, questions that they expect to be asked. Students may be paired and interview each other or the interviewers may be selected by the teacher. Once these role-plays have been completed, the teacher helps students hypothesize about the deeper cultural values illustrated by the culture's choice of its heroes. A variant of this activity appropriate to larger classes culminates in a game of "To Tell the Truth," in which three students playing the same role must answer panelists' questions. Student panelists and observers vote for the student who seems to best represent the figure.

Most beginning texts contain a unit on housing in which students learn to locate and name the various rooms of the house and the furniture one expects to find, to describe the activities that take place in houses, and to state some facts about typical housing in the target culture. A lesson on the chateaux can adapt the language learned to the acquisition of some "Big C" cultural facts and provide some insight into the values of the upper classes

in pre-revolutionary France. The students' first task is to compare the layout of a chateau to that of a modern home. They then compare both to the plan of a second chateau from a different era. Are there differences other than in the number and size of the rooms? What reasons might explain these differences? What activities take place in the rooms of a chateau? Who participates? As homework, students can find out where the chateaux are located, why they were built, and how they were furnished.

Intermediate students are more adept at communications about personal history and activities. They are beginning to narrate and describe. To demonstrate that they have acquired factual knowledge about a key figure in history and that they understand how the target culture chooses its heroes, they can write the biography of an important historical figure as it would be written at a particular point in time. Completing this task would also help them appreciate that civilization facts are not immutable but subject to interpretation based on cultural values. Ferro (1995) uses the example of Jeanne d'Arc to illustrate the multiple "versions" of history: when the king's historians write, her role is secular and diminished; later, the "pious" version appears. In the nineteenth century, the Catholics are embarrassed by the role of the Church and blame the English; "lay" versions have trouble with the "voices." For this activity, the teacher needs to provide a variety of source materials from different periods. Reading encyclopedia entries and historical texts from different eras can help students understand how factual information can be used differently, but a more useful resource might be videotapes of filmed biographies when multiple ones exist. Since description is important at this level, an arts-based task would require that students derive common elements from two representations of an artistic period or movement. First they observe and describe in some detail the two examples. Then they compare the two descriptions.

At the advanced level, negotiation activities provide a structure for research, role-playing, discussion, and writing. By definition, negotiation is "back-and-forth communication designed to reach an agreement when you and the other side have some interests that are shared and others that are opposed" (Fisher et al 1991: xvii). Negotiation activities are especially useful in the language classroom because they demand that students gather content-specific information which they use to formulate and support arguments, counter contradictory views, and reach creative solutions. To negotiate well, students must be able to converse in a clearly participatory fashion, to narrate and describe with paragraph-length connected discourse, to convey meaning with diverse language strategies required by a complication or an unforeseen turn of events, and to support opinions, explain in detail, and hypothesize. Making progress in these abilities helps the student

move from the "advanced" to the "superior" level on the ACTFL scale and is a significant accomplishment. In the civilization course, negotiation activities require that students move from the acquisition of facts to evaluation and synthesis in order to formulate and support their positions. Negotiation involves at least two people and is best done as a group activity, but individual students can be assessed on elements involved in preparation and individual students can report on the progress and results.

Civilization courses naturally lend themselves to teaching through negotiation, because the content often deals with attempts to resolve conflicts between people, classes, nations, and ideas. A typical instructional task in a "Big C" French civilization course asks students to negotiate a solution that will avoid the war between Julius Caesar's Rome and the Gauls. In order to accomplish this assignment, students must gather information about each culture and analyze it to determine the key values of each society, e.g., the role of law, religion, and centralized authority. Both sides must then use this cultural understanding to prepare arguments to support their position, decide what offers and concessions to make, and anticipate the arguments of the other side. When this negotiation comes at the beginning of a chronologically constructed course, the first subtask may require that students identify the components of culture so that they can look in their research for those elements that make Celtic and Roman culture unique. Because of the subject's complexity, the information gathering is best assigned as homework. Teachers should provide a list of useful resources, including library books, Internet resources, and videotapes, and help students formulate research strategies. One possible linguistic subtask requires that students determine what words are used to describe each of these cultures. Are these words indicative of cultural attitudes toward these cultures? To prepare for the actual negotiation, they can be asked to list common phrases used in argumentation and negotiation in English. In class they work in groups to compile a similar list in French, using reference works and texts the teacher has prepared.

When this negotiation ends in failure, i.e., war becomes inevitable because the core values of the societies are diametrically opposed, the link between cultural values and historical events is reinforced. If an agreement is reached, students can be asked during the post-negotiation debriefing to discuss whether peace was gained at the expense of an essential element of Roman or Celtic society. One can easily imagine other situations both real and imaginary that provide opportunities for negotiation: conflicts between the bourgeoisie of a new town and a feudal lord, between proponents of a constitutional monarchy and a republic, between immigrants and long-time residents.

Negotiating at this level is possible only when students are sophisticated thinkers and linguistically ready to attempt to move along the ACTFL scale from Advanced to Superior. It is unrealistic to expect undergraduates to perform consistently at the Advanced level; however, with careful preparation they can complete a task that requires Advanced or Superior skills. A less complex task that links historical events, key figures in French civilization, and cultural values requires that students present their candidate for the best representative of the Capetian dynasty's objectives to a fictional Monarch's Hall of Fame. Subtasks include gathering information about the activities and personalities of several kings, analyzing this information to determine the goals of the dynasty, and evaluating the performance of the monarchs in light of these goals. These civilization-oriented activities require the linguistic skills to describe and narrate, to present and support an opinion, and to counter the arguments of others. If research is done in the target language—and some of it should be at this level—students must also be able to comprehend historical information in print and non-print sources. To promote cross-cultural awareness, students should also do research on the opinions other nations held about the Capetians (Dante's depiction of Hugues Capet in *Purgatorio XX* is a good resource); representatives of these nations will ask questions of the students presenting their candidates to illuminate contrasting values. Other aspects of civilization can be taught through the same basic activity, e.g., students can propose candidates for the Philosopher's Hall of Fame or the Great Buildings Theme Park.

Conclusion

It is clear that competence in a foreign language requires that one acquire not only linguistic skills but also cultural competence. This competence includes, but is certainly not limited to, factual knowledge about the history, ideas, literature, and arts of the target culture. The acquisition of these facts need not be limited to discrete advanced courses in "civilization," but instead can be integrated with language and culture instruction from the earliest levels. Task-based activities that require in-class use of the language at the appropriate level can be structured to help students enhance their use of the target language and create cultural meaning from factual information. This approach, recognizing that attaining cultural competence is a life-long endeavor, also encourages students to employ the research and cognitive skills that will enable them to make meaning from new facts and cultural phenomena whenever they are encountered.

Notes

1. Examples of this link between language and culture are too numerous to cite, but typical statements are found in Byrnes (1991: 205), Crawford-Lange and Lange (1984: 140), and Pesola (1991: 31).
2. The work of Rivers (1988) and, particularly, Lafayette (1988) are rare exceptions in which concrete examples are given of the ways in which civilization facts can be taught at all levels of instruction.
3. Jenks (1974) shows how research can be used to advance cultural understanding in the foreign language class.

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2

Foreign Language Reading Versus Understanding: Using Think-Aloud Protocols to Identify L2 Reading Problems

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Foreign language instructors know that when students have read a text, it does not follow necessarily that the students have understood it. While many of our students may be competent in grammar and vocabulary and can summarize a story, generally they "cannot attach any genuine 'meaning' to the text" (Bernhardt 1991: 181). In other words, students cannot go beyond the descriptive content elements (who, what, when, where) of a text to the analytical or interpretive elements (why, how) (Swaffar, et al.: 1991). Teaching L2 reading can easily become frustrating when we have followed recommended methods, the students have given an honest effort, and yet comprehension remains elusive. We need a tool which not only enables us to identify student reading problems but can also aid students in the comprehension process.

The Need for a Diagnostic and Instructional Tool

Traditionally, L2 reading instruction practices have emphasized the linguistic and factual content of a text while rarely encouraging students to think about the content (Swaffar et al. 1991). Coady (1979) noted that L2

students spend more time answering detailed post-reading questions, learning vocabulary related to the text, and observing certain grammar intricacies of the text, than actually reading the text. Further, Coady blamed the poor performance of L2 readers on these traditional methods employed to teach L2 reading. Recently, this view was echoed by Swaffar et al. (1991), "We find our students' problems in transferring their ability to read, speak, and write in an L2 to be a result of current pedagogical practice rather than a cognitive necessity" (136). The poor L2 reading comprehension that students may exhibit is quite possibly due to instructional emphasis on formal language features and on explicit information in the text.

Recently, as evidenced with interactive models (Bernhardt 1991; Carrell 1988; Eskey 1986; and Swaffar et al. 1991), there has been an impetus in L2 reading instruction away from those past practices, toward an integration of text-given elements and the knowledge-driven elements the reader possesses (Bernhardt 119). Language skills must be integrated with a learner's higher-order cognitive capabilities in order to attain meaning. This interactive instructional approach suggests that greater understanding while reading is possible.

The theoretical basis for this approach proposes that reading involves an interaction between bottom-up and top-down processing. *Bottom-up* refers to language processing starting at the lowest levels, i.e., linguistic information such as letter recognition and word recognition, proceeding to sentence level syntax, and then to the discourse level without influence from the higher levels. In other words, reading is decoding the linguistic information and is essentially text-based processing. *Top-down* processing consists of those processes in which higher levels of cognitive operations influence lower levels, i.e., context may influence the choice of word meaning, or the reader may predict an upcoming event in a text. Top-down processing is, therefore, knowledge-based and conceptually driven. Readers may also relate what has been read to the world knowledge they possess, in other words, what the reader adds to the reading process.

In the L2 classroom, an interactive reading approach tries to utilize both bottom-up and top-down processes, generally accomplished in several stages. Shrum and Glisan (1994), condensing the basic steps from various interactive models, offer the following model. Starting with pre-reading activities such as skimming and scanning, the goal is to activate students' background knowledge of cultural and topic information and relate it to the text . This step is followed by identifying the main ideas and then selecting the details which support those main concepts. Students, after verifying the identified ideas and supporting evidence, summarize or recreate the text. In

the final step, students react to the text and use details from the text to support their opinions.

As foreign language instructors, we know that even when implementing the interactive reading approaches, many of our students may still be unable to comprehend the implicit conceptually-driven aspects needed for interpretation or analysis. None of the stages described above in the interactive reading approach, except the activation of background knowledge, directly addresses the role of the implicit aspects of a text which can easily elude an L2 student's comprehension. Background knowledge, however, does not necessarily resolve the comprehension problems (Bernhardt 1991).

In Bernhardt's study (1991) which investigated how a reader applies background knowledge to an L2 text, she found that some students used their background knowledge, while others did not. Some students had little background knowledge and comprehended a text well; others had a lot of background knowledge and had still comprehension difficulties. She concluded that the students' application of background knowledge to the comprehension process (making knowledge-based inferences) yielded "rather unsatisfactory interpretations of reading in a second language" (116). Further, she stated that the exact role of background knowledge has yet to be determined (117). Therefore, in L2 classrooms, just the activation of background knowledge is not sufficient for all students to better their comprehension. Therefore, L2 instructors are still left with the same problems: how to identify student comprehension difficulties and how to resolve them. What resources do L2 instructors have when confronted with student comprehension problems?

Some L2 Reading Diagnostic Tools

Bernhardt (1991: 17) recommends the use of written immediate recall as a tool for identifying student comprehension problems. Students demonstrate immediate recall when, after reading a text, they write down as much of the text as they can remember. Bernhardt states that this procedure "gives a picture of learner processes." Recall, however, is a *post*-reading measure. Myers (1990: 373) reports that in L1 research, recall and summaries are indirect measures of the comprehension process and are "susceptible to factors that may have influence after the text is read." One possible factor affecting recall is memory. Recall may instead reflect an individual's memory capacity rather than his or her comprehension.

Myers goes on to state that more research with on-line measures (*on-line*, using a computer metaphor, refers to the active comprehension process

during reading) need to be used (373). In order to understand the comprehension process itself, researchers should use on-line measures rather than focus on recall,which measures the product of comprehension. Some on-line measures used in L1 and L2, such as reading time or eye movement, do not reveal what processes occur during reading.

Few studies in second language reading research have investigated L2 processing on-line (during reading). Bernhardt (1991) did an extensive review of the second language reading research and reported that most methods employed in L2 reading research use *post*-reading measures such as recall or questions. There is another on-line method known as *think-aloud* which reveals processing. Think-aloud is a procedure in which individuals verbalize their thoughts while they are reading.

While think-aloud has been more recently used as a research tool in L2 reading research (e.g., Davis and Bistoudeau 1993; Horiba 1990; Kern 1994), it has also been used in the past as an L2 diagnostic tool (e.g., Cohen and Hosenfeld 1981; Hosenfeld et al. 1981). These two latter studies with think-aloud as a diagnostic tool concentrated on students' self-observation of translation/decoding strategies employed during reading. In other words, the students verbalized *how* they were comprehending the text, not *what* they were comprehending. While it is important to identify student translation strategies to guide them, for example, in better use of context, this process is still text-based.

Think-aloud and a Text Comprehension Model

Currently, think-aloud is being used in the field of cognitive psychology where researchers are actively investigating L1 on-line text comprehension. Several researchers have conducted studies on narrative text comprehension using a think-aloud methodology (e.g., Trabasso and Suh 1993; Trabasso and Magliano forthcoming a; Trabasso and Magliano forthcoming b; Whitney, Ritchie, and Clark 1991).

The Trabasso and Magliano method of think-aloud (forthcoming a, b) requires the participants to read a short narrative, one sentence at a time, and after each sentence to think out loud about how they understand that sentence in the context of the story. Trabasso and Magliano analyzed the various verbal protocols—recorded verbalizations—and have identified four main types of "thoughts": paraphrases, associations, predictions, and explanations. Paraphrases are essentially "translations" of a given sentence in which meaning is preserved and the linguistic structure of the original sentence is usually retained. For example, a paraphrase of "Once upon a time, a small green frog used to live with his family" might look like this:

"At some point a frog lived with his family, a green little frog." The original meaning of the text sentence is retained and is linguistically very similar to the original sentence. Associations are an elaboration of the text based on activation of world knowledge. For example, in the nursery rhyme "Mary had a little lamb," an individual may well conclude that Mary lives on a farm, as lambs are usually found there. The person has "activated" world knowledge and made an association. In other words, the reader has brought a concept of how the world works—that lambs live on farms—which is not specifically mentioned in the text, and brought this information into his or her thought processes.

Predictions and explanations are both inferences. An inference is what a reader mentally adds to a text to integrate two different parts of that text with world knowledge, perhaps to predict a future event or explain a causal relationship. Explanations are inferences about a causal antecedent of a previously mentioned event or action in the sentence. For example, in *Sam hit Susan; Susan cried,* the comprehender will probably conclude that Susan cried because it hurt when Sam hit her. This conclusion causally relates her crying to a previous event, her being hit. Predictions, on the other hand, are inferences regarding a causal consequence of an event or action given in the sentence. For example, in *The car ran a red light; a police car pulled the car over,* a comprehender can predict that the driver of the car will probably get a ticket, as he or she relates a current event to a possible future outcome.

Several researchers (e.g., Trabasso and Magliano forthcoming a, b ; Chi et al. 1994; Graesser, Singer and Trabasso 1994; van den Broek and Lorch 1993) have proposed a theory of text comprehension in which explanations seem to be the most important factor in understanding a text. The explanation-based theory of text comprehension argues that readers try to integrate information across sentences by searching for causal antecedents. Several studies have found support for this theory (Fletcher 1986; Fletcher and Bloom 1988; Graesser 1981; Schank and Abelson 1977; Trabasso and Suh 1993; van den Broek and Lorch 1993). Trabasso and Suh (1993) show that when readers relate causally two parts of a text—an inference explaining *why* these events have occured—it integrates the text. In other words, explanations allow readers to create a coherent text by increasing the retrieval of prior *relevant* knowledge from long-term memory. These explanations not only integrate the text for better comprehension but also allow the reader to remember it longer (Trabasso and Suh 1993; Trabasso and Magliano forthcoming a, b). While these results are relevant to L1 comprehension, little is currently known about what happens in L2 on-line narrative text processing.

Related L2 Studies

A few studies have investigated L2 processing using the think-aloud method (Davis and Bistoudeau 1993; Horiba 1990; Kern 1994). Kern (1994), for instance, found that the majority of students translated the text into L1, in essence paraphrasing it, and thus their comprehension suffered. He argued that the students needed to translate the text, as it is easier to maintain an L1 representation of meaning in working memory than an L2 representation. When L2 fluency increased, the frequency of translation decreased, and so comprehension increased. Translating is, in effect, paraphrasing which does not allow integration of a text because no inferences are made. In other words, the current sentence is not related either to a preceding event (explanation) or future event (prediction). Thus students' comprehension may have suffered because not only did they exhibit decoding problems but also because they were unable to *explain.*

Davis and Bistoudeau (1993) looked at inferences generated in L2 processing but did not analyze explanations separately. Instead, they were placed together with other top-down processes: predictions, associations, evaluations, and meta-comments, which are comments on the processing itself.

Horiba (1990) investigated the causal structure of stories used in her study, inferences generated during reading, and subjects' recall of each story. Horiba's L2 subjects, however, were advanced (third year) and therefore more experienced readers. This study found L2 students made fewer inferences than L1 participants (explanations were not identified as such and neither were the types of inferences). L2 students also tended to comment more on their comprehension difficulties resulting from translation problems. Horiba reasons that since most L2 readers must translate into L1 to access meaning but not, of course, in L1 reading. This reliance on L1 may possibly affect the generation of inferences which are produced at a higher level of cognitive processing. Since explanations were not identified, it is difficult to know if the L2 students generated explanations and under what conditions.

A Think-aloud Case Study

One study, Zwaan and Brown (forthcoming), followed the think-aloud analysis method developed by Trabasso and Suh, and looked at inference generation in English (L1) versus French (L2) comprehension and at comprehension skill ("good" vs. "poor" comprehenders). These researchers used the Verbal SAT score in English to distinguish the participants. While this study (see Table 1, next page) looked at the role of inferences in

Table 1.
Sample think-aloud protocol (*good* comprehender) (Zwann Brown 1996)

KEY:
ASSOC = association
PA = paraphrase
ME = meta-comment
EX = explanation
PR = prediction
IT = incorrect translation
TA = translation attempt
EV = evaluation
WR = word resolution
WP = word problem

La Petite Grenouille	Subject #8	Statement Category
Il était une fois une petite grenouille verte qui habitait avec sa famille au bord d'une rivière.	c1. Well he's a small green something	PA with a WP (grenouille)
	c2. that lives by a river with his family,	PA
	c3 .so we'll figure it out.	ME
Sa vie n'était pas très passionante, mais c'était une bonne vie de grenouille française bourgeoise.	c1. Well whatever this thing is I'm sure that it is some sort of animal or plant but I'm not sure which one yet,	ME
	c2. and he has a bourgeois lifestyle by a riverside	PA
	c3. so this should be an interesting story.	EV
Sa mère et son père lui disaient toujours d'être modeste et satisfaite de cette bonne vie qui n'était pas, après tout, si mauvaise.	c1. So his parents are always telling	PA
	c2. oh don't worry about it	EX
	c3. this is you know not such a bad life,	PA
	c4. be modest, and be you know nice about it and stuff	PA
	c5. and you'll be fine.	ASSOC
Mais voilà ! La petite grenouille aimait beaucoup lire et écouter les histoires des métamorphosse de grenouilles en princes charmants.	c1. OHH so he's a frog!! I see.	WR
	c2. ok well basically he just really liked to read these stories	PA
	c3. About how frogs just like him were changed into princes and uh	PA
	c4. well that's kind of interesting	EV
	c5. because he's hoping he can well his life isn't particularly amazing but	EX
	c6. he's hoping to be a prince.	PR

the construction of a situation model (a mental model of the text constructed by the reader), the think-aloud results are relevant to this discussion. Paraphrases (translations) and explanations were found to predominate. Paraphrases were more prevalent in the L2 think-aloud verbal data, or protocols, than in the ones for L1, while explanations predominated in L1 and not L2. This finding is not surprising since L2 reading entails translation; L1 does not. L1 readers were able to devote more attention to explaining. The good comprehenders (see Table 1, previous page) explained more than the poor comprehenders did, most especially in L1. The good comprehenders still explained more in L2 than the poor ones, but also had fewer decoding (translation) problems. Table 1 shows a sample of a verbal protocol for a good comprehender who is reading one of the French stories. The unit of analysis is the clause, in which each contains one main verb.

The four thought processes described by Trabasso and Magliano are present in this protocol. This particular student closely translates (paraphrases [PA]) clauses of the text such as "Well he's a small green something // that lives by a river with his family." This translation can be viewed as two paraphrases. Since L2 reading protocols are more complicated than ones in L1 due to translation, other categories are necessary. For example, the student uses "something" to represent the unknown noun *grenouille* and constitutes a word problem [WP]. When the good comprehenders hit a snag in translation, they attempt to figure out word meaning. Even though this subject did not know the word *grenouille* (frog), she was willing to wait to see if meaning could be resolved. Comments on the reading process itself or making other statements not related to the text itself are meta-comments [ME], for example the remark "we'll figure it out later." The student does just that when she deduces what *grenouille* is: "Oh, so he's a frog!" This is a word resolution [WR].

This student, before discovering that *grenouille* is a "frog," is still able to infer that the parents of this "something" were really telling their offspring "oh don't worry about it" because the "something" has a good life ("*d'être modeste et satisfaite de cette bonne vie*"). The student is comprehending the text. The student then later makes the prediction [PR] that the frog wants to become a prince. This student also makes an association [ASS] by adding world knowledge about what parents typically say as reassurance ("you'll be fine"). Finally this student comments on her feelings about the story, an evaluation [EV], ("this should be interesting").

On the other hand, Table 2 (next page) shows a sample protocol of a poor comprehender who is having major comprehension problems due to mistranslation. The student completely misses *Il était une fois* (Once upon

Table 2.
Sample think aloud protocol (*poor* comprehender) (Zwaan and Brown 1996)

Key:
ASSOC=association
PA=paraphrase
ME=meta comment
EX-explanation
PR=prediction
IT= incorrect translation
TA=translation attempt
EV=evaluation
WR=word resolution
WP=word problem

La Petite Grenouille	Subject # 19	Statement Category
Il était une fois une petite grenouille verte qui habitait avec sa famille au bord d'une rivière.	c1.	( )
	c2. She's petite, he's petite	TA
	c3. And he lived with his family near the river	PA
Sa vie n'était pas très passionante, mais c'était une bonne vie de grenouille française bourgeoise.	c1. The life was not as passionate but . . .	PA
	c2. He lived with the great borgies.	IT
	c3. The great class of people	IT

a time) and the word *grenouille* (frog), and, although *bourgeoisie* is recognized as having to do with social class, this student has clearly not comprehended the sentence. The student makes an attempt at translation [TA] ("she's petite, he's petite"). The student incorrectly translates [IT] and seems not to notice, at least does not verbalize any concerns regarding her translation, when she incorrectly identifies the *bourgeoisie* as "the great borgies." She will not be able to comprehend this text successfully.

Think-aloud as a Diagnostic Tool

What is more and more apparent with think-aloud data such as Zwaan and Brown (forthcoming) show, is that a student's thinking process is revealed. Following Trabasso and Magliano's protocol analysis methods (forthcoming a, b), it is possible to see what types of inferences, if any, are

being made, and when, where, and what types of translation problems readers have. This information is valuable to the foreign language instructor and, therefore, to the student as well.

This think-aloud method and analysis system can provide the foreign language instructor with a tool to reveal the reading processes of the student. It is easily adaptable to an instructional setting for a single student or group situation. Let us first consider the procedure for use with a single student, one on one with the instructor outside of class. The first step is to have the student think aloud about how he or she understands each sentence of a text by saying whatever comes to mind in his or her native language. These verbalizations can be tape-recorded if the student agrees, or, after some practice, the instructor can note the thoughts, paraphrases, associations, explanations, predictions, and other categories as described in the Zwaan and Brown study. Analysis of the collected data would be better done when there is sufficient time to consider them, overnight perhaps, because the data provided are very rich and deserve careful consideration. The more comprehension problems we can identify, the better equipped we are to help the student.

After the identification of the students' thoughts from the data, there are several factors which the L2 instructor should examine: Were the students able to generate inferences, especially explanations? If not, is it because the students were simply paraphrasing/translating the text or because they were incorrectly translating it?

If the students are having translation problems, it is possible to identify with this procedure whether the diffficulty is a question of vocabulary, a particular word class problem, or failure to use context, for example. Use of context may be a double-edged sword, however. When world knowledge is activated, the student must be able to determine what is relevant. Zwaan and Brown (forthcoming) found that poor comprehenders tended to activate too much world knowledge, made too many associations, and were led astray. Good comprehenders, on the other hand, appeared to be able to suppress non-relevant world knowledge.

If the students are just paraphrasing and thus failing to make inferences, they are not integrating the text. Since generating explanations can integrate a text, the goal of the instructor is to encourage the student to explain. In order to facilitate the generation of explanations, the instructor should ask *how* and *why* questions *during* reading. *Why* questions especially lead the students to make causal relations in the text. The instructor can identify in advance the causal relationships and ask *why* questions at the appropriate times. For example, in the classic story of Cinderella, the fairy godmother tells Cinderella to be sure to leave the ball before midnight, because at

midnight the spell will be broken and her clothes will turn back into rags. Later in the story as the clock is striking twelve and Cinderella runs from the castle, it is at this point that the instructor can then ask: Why did Cinderella have to run from the ball at midnight? This question leads the student to explain what the fairy godmother had told her earlier in the evening, and by so doing, the student is integrating the text.

In their work with third graders, Trabasso and Magliano (forthcoming b) have shown that intervention of *why* and *how* questions improves comprehension. Chi et al. (1994) show the same results with eighth graders. It seems likely that such intervention would improve reading comprehension for L2 students also. Future studies should address this possibility.

Think-aloud and the use of *why* and *how* questions can be used in the classroom as well. If the text is short, such as a poem or fable, the entire text may be used. If the text is longer, a passage may be selected. The instructor can ask the class as a whole to comment on each line and how they understand it within the context of the story. The instructor can intervene to ask *why* or *how* questions or have students predict possible outcomes. If the students seem to be having difficulty, Trabasso and Magliano (forthcoming b) suggest modeling as a way for students to view understanding as a "social, constructive process." So, for example, in the Cinderella story, if the students were unable to explain why she ran from the ball, the instructor can prompt the students by asking what conditions the fairy gave Cinderella. If necessary the instructor can model the process of how a knowledgeable reader would be able to link her flight from the castle back to the fairy's warning. Using think-aloud to encourage students to explain fits nicely with interactive approaches to teaching reading, and especially with authentic texts, since it also allows the discussion of cultural nuances which non-natives lack.

In addition, think-aloud can be used by the instructor, in advance, to determine the quality of the text. Trabasso and Magliano (forthcoming a, b) point out that texts with a rich causal structure, usually involving goals and motivations of characters and outcomes of actions, are well-written texts. Readers use their knowledge of goals and outcomes to help make causal relationships (Trabasso and Suh 1993). Readers or television viewers make these causal relationships most especially in mysteries. In order to play detective along with the story, the reader needs to keep track of events, goals, motivations, and outcomes. In choosing materials for the students to read, the instructor can tape-record his or her own comments, as described above for the student, to evaluate the text's causal structure. Therefore, if the instructor is able to generate a lot of explanations in his or her own think-aloud data, students will have more opportunities to explain as well.

Using Trabasso and Magliano's analysis system with think-aloud data aids the foreign language teacher in the selection of well-written authentic texts. This new way of analyzing a text is quite revealing. Many literary masterpieces have a well-developed causal and goal-oriented structure. A good example is the novel *Père Goriot* by Balzac. The main character, Rastignac, wants to become a member of high society. Every other character in the novel has equally specific goals, with many events and outcomes based on those goals. The story appeals to the reader who follows what choices the characaters make to attain their goals. The instructor can have the students trace the goals and outcomes of actions taken by the characters in a text, such as the one cited. This information can then be used for analysis, synthesis, and evaluation of a text.

Conclusion and Summary

For the foreign or second language instructor, the think-aloud method can be used as a diagnostic tool to identify L2 student reading comprehension problems. Think-aloud methods include pinpointing comprehension problems, such as decoding difficulties; over-paraphrasing; not explaining; making too many or nonrelevant associations; identifying a text's goal/causal structure; knowing when to intervene with *why* and *how* questions to promote a richer discussion of literary texts. Aside from identifying the text-based problem areas described above, guiding students to relate events causally in a text promotes a deeper understanding which eludes many readers, especially the poor ones. These potential problem areas of comprehension may well be reduced or even eliminated through an effective and consistent application of the think-aloud tool and this analysis system developed by Trabasso and Magliano.

The use of think-aloud in the classroom may finally shed a light on our students' thoughts when they are reading. This method could be a valuable asset to interactive reading approaches which attempt to make reading for meaning not just a possibility but a reality. It is only when we as foreign language instructors can "see" our students' comprehension processes and problems that we can do something to guide these students toward better comprehension and a more enjoyable reading experience.

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3

Creating a K-12 Japanese Language Teacher Certification Program

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Introduction

Schools across the country are seeking to increase programs and resources that prepare their students for independent life in a global society. Foreign language instruction, particularly in those less-commonly taught languages crucial to our academic, diplomatic, and commercial interaction with Japan and East Asia, is vitally important to an organized pursuit of global competence.

There are several states that offer K-12 Japanese teacher certification, including California, Iowa, Michigan, Oregon, and Washington. However, only a very small number of universities in these states are preparing K-12 teachers of Japanese for certification. The demand for foreign language teachers is acute, and there is an inadequate supply of certified teachers. If there were more certified teachers of Japanese available, more schools would select it as a language to be taught.

It appears that the best long-term solution is to create well articulated K-12 teacher certification programs in the United States which will provide training for the growing number of K-12 Japanese teachers. The purpose of this article is to document the development of a K-12 teacher certification program in Japanese. After an exploration of the need for such a program,

the article will share the steps taken toward creating a K-12 Japanese teacher certification program. The article will close with suggestions on how other institutions of higher education can duplicate the process.

The Need for K-12 Japanese Teacher Certification

Over the past decade in the United States, less-commonly taught languages have experienced unprecedented growth. When discussing pre-collegiate Japanese language programs, the data drawn from the National Foreign Language Center in 1991 and the Association of Teachers of Japanese in 1990 estimate that over 800 schools, kindergarten through grade 12, offer Japanese language instruction. Regarding college/university-level involvement, the Modern Language Association reported 412 institutions of higher education offering Japanese as of 1990 (Jorden and Lambert 1991). More recently, a survey conducted by the Japan Foundation Language Center between September 1994 and January 1995 involved 1,115 pre-collegiate schools and 362 colleges/universities that offer Japanese language instruction (The Japan Foundation Language Center 1995).

Jorden and Lambert, using the 1990 MLA list of institutions, prepared an extensive study of the teaching of Japanese in the United States entitled *Japanese Language Instruction in the United States: Resources, Practice, and Investment Strategy.* The report gives a thorough view of the teaching of Japanese in the United States today, not only from kindergarten through the university level, but also in business and government. The study does not report how many colleges and universities offer teacher certification for Japanese, but it does make clear that "the majority of pre-collegiate teachers of Japanese are native speakers of English. Almost all are certified, but in most cases, for subjects other than Japanese" (Jorden and Lambert: 179).

It is also clear that there are very few institutions of higher education that certify K-12 Japanese language teachers. Interestingly, even though less commonly taught languages (LCTs) have been growing in importance over the past decade, it is extremely difficult to find people associated with foreign language education at the national level who are familiar with colleges and universities with such certification programs in LCTs. Only by interviewing a few Japanese professors and posting an inquiry on an internet discussion bulletin for Japanese teachers was it discovered that only one university in California, one in Iowa, one in Michigan, one in Oregon, and six in Washington offer a K-12 certification program in Japanese.[1] Whether or not this information is complete, the fact is that only a very small number of institutions are preparing K-12 Japanese language teachers for certification.

One way of staffing K-12 teaching positions when the universities have not been graduating certified Japanese teachers is to make use of teacher exchanges. At best, these are temporary solutions to personnel problems with little if any vertical articulation from one year to the next. Also, many teachers from Japan find United States schools a truly foreign experience, and they have difficulty fitting in and coping with the American educational system since, in part, pedagogical approaches vary widely (Heining-Boynton and Hart 1991).

If Japanese language teachers have received any training in teaching methodology, it has been via a staff development project like a summer institute for teachers of Japanese. Also, many teachers are trained for teaching grades 9-12. Since Japanese is a "truly foreign language" for native speakers of English — one that requires a longer time to learn compared to commonly taught Indo-European languages (Walton 1991) — many school systems are beginning to expose the children to more language in the early grades. However, the teachers are not prepared for the young learner because their preparation has been for the 9-12 student. It appears, then, that the best long-term solution is to create well articulated K-12 teacher certification programs in the United States to provide consistent training for the growing number of K-12 Japanese teachers.

Why Japanese in the South and Why North Carolina?

It would be dishonest not to admit that the implementation of K-12 teacher certification in the South has been questioned. What is overlooked or not understood is that the South is a growing region for international business. Existing simultaneously is the need not only in the South, but throughout the United States for international understanding and cooperation. Although the North witnessed the Industrial Revolution, the South is in the midst of the Technological Revolution. Companies from other regions in the United States as well as from other countries are relocating in the South for a variety of economic and quality-of-life reasons.

In North Carolina a state-wide commitment has been made to provide new opportunities for our citizens in global education. The International Foreign Language Center was created in 1993 to support and attract international business in the state. Additionally, the state boasts the Japan Center of North Carolina State University that supports and encourages K-16 endeavors with Japan.

Additionally, North Carolina is one of six states that currently has a K-5 foreign language mandate. The North Carolina legislation reads that all children in grades K-5 must study a foreign language and that foreign

language study must be offered in grades 6-12 as an elective. The law was enacted in 1985, and implementation began in 1988. North Carolina's law is the most comprehensive in the nation, and other states such as Arizona and Georgia are modeling their state mandate programs after North Carolina's. Hence, based on its commitment to a long, sequential study of foreign languages and its support of international business, North Carolina is a prime candidate to certify K-12 teachers of Japanese.

In North Carolina, there are no universities that have a teacher certification program in Japanese, yet Japanese currently is being offered in four school districts and in over twenty public schools. These districts are eager to expand their programs, yet they, like other districts across the country, find it difficult to expand when a pool of qualified teachers is not available. These districts are filling their teaching positions with exchange teachers from Japan who remain in the United States for a year and then return home. With the constant change of personnel, there is little continuity from one year to the next. In addition, there is a significant lack of adequate training as teachers. As it was mentioned earlier, if there were more certified teachers of Japanese available, more schools would select it as a language to be taught. With more universities offering Japanese teacher certification, K-12 programs would grow and flourish.

So how does one sell a new program in times of diminishing funds? It is imperative to rally support from the decision makers of the college or university. They need concrete facts regarding the need for the project and how it will benefit the institution and its population.

The University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill (UNC-CH) already had the infrastructure in place for such an endeavor. For example, the university already had a strong, highly integrated and articulated K-12 teacher certification program in Spanish, French, and German, and a 9-12 certification program in Latin. The university also has two highly supportive deans in both the College of Arts and Sciences and the School of Education. Both work well together and are interested in innovative programs that combine both Arts and Sciences and Education. They were impressed with the fact that a K-12 Japanese certification would stabilize and improve the existing Japanese language offerings at the UNC-CH as well as provide a pool of students well-prepared for certification.

Creating a K-12 Japanese Teacher Certification Program

One way to tackle the problem of teacher certification is to follow an in-service model such as the one that Texas is employing. In Texas there has been a growing demand for Japanese language instruction at secondary

schools, and student enrollment as well as the number of teachers has increased dramatically in the last few years. In order to certify these teachers and to improve the quality of instruction, the University of Texas at Austin launched an in-service Japanese teacher certification program in spring 1995 (Saito et al. 1995). The program includes intensive summer workshops, a series of conferences and workshops during the regular school year, a semester-long internship and one hundred hours of student teaching. This one-time program, which lasts for three years, provides a two-year training for a group of native-speaking teachers and another for a group of non-native teachers.

The School of Education at the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill decided on a different model in which teacher certification is a part of the undergraduate teacher education program. This K-12 Japanese language teacher certification program will be the first one in the state of North Carolina, and one of the only ones east of the Rocky Mountains. Although several issues need to be resolved in order to establish the program, UNC-CH and neighboring institutions offer many resources that will enhance a Japanese language K-12 certification program. For example, the university has an extremely well-equipped language laboratory housed in the foreign language building. Located in the School of Education is a state-of-the-art telecommunications center that delivers satellite broadcasts across the country and downlinks foreign language broadcasts from around the world for distribution on the campus network.

Also in the School of Education is the Instructional Technologies Center with a large collection of teaching materials, many of which are technology based. In Raleigh, North Carolina, the Japan Center is a resource that UNC-CH is eager to incorporate in its planning for this project. It serves the entire state in issues dealing with Japanese culture and the teaching of Japanese. Close liaison is maintained with the North Carolina State University through the Triangle East Asia Colloquium, which offers seminars on topics related to Japan and China. A close coordination of efforts between UNC-CH and Duke University has resulted in the systematic acquisition of resources and library materials on Japan and China. Joint proposals for institutional development in Japanese and Chinese studies are underway which would make the Duke-UNC program eligible for consideration as a national center of excellence for East Asian Studies through a Title VI grant.

Off campus, but closely connected to UNC-CH is the Center for the Humanities, located in the Research Triangle Park. This important center supports the philosophy that "hard" research and the humanities are not mutually exclusive.

These resources provide a strong foundation for creating a Japanese certification program. In the process of program development, however, it has become clear that setting up the program involves not merely adding the title "Japanese" to the existing French, German, Latin, and Spanish teacher education programs. A number of issues need to be taken into consideration and resolved to create a strong and model program.

First, since UNC-CH, like other universities and colleges in the United States, and all others in North Carolina, does not offer a bachelor's degree in Japanese,[2] the number and the range of Japanese language course offerings are limited, and some ways must be sought to ensure enough Japanese learning opportunities for students. Second, in order to meet State of North Carolina standards, the university must be equipped with sufficient library and technology resources specifically related to teaching Japanese. Third, because of the nature of a "truly foreign language" for native speakers of English, a different exit criterion for education students in Japanese needs to be established. The criterion should be based on realistic goals rather than modeling them after other commonly-taught European languages. In the following sections these issues will be discussed in more detail. In the discussion, a comparison will be made with the situations in the three Pacific states, California, Oregon, and Washington, which issue K-12 Japanese teaching certificates.

Course Work in Japanese

One of the preconditions for developing a foreign language teacher preparation program is obviously the existence of a college-level program in the target language. At UNC-CH, education students in French, German, Latin, and Spanish are required to complete on the average 30 semester hours of upper-division courses in their target languages in the College of Arts and Sciences.[3] Likewise, universities in Pacific coast states that offer Japanese teacher certification programs require applicants to major in Japanese. For instance, teacher education programs at the University of Washington and the University of Oregon, which are post-baccalaureate programs, require applicants to have a B.A. in Japanese or its equivalent. Both of these universities also have undergraduate degree programs in Japanese. At California State University at Los Angeles, students in the "Single Subject Credential" program must major in Japanese and complete 60 quarter hours in Japanese (52 hours of upper-division required courses and 8 hours of upper-division electives).[4] Ideally, like these universities in the Pacific coast states, a new Japanese teacher certification program will have to be supported by a Japanese program that offers a Bachelor of Arts degree.

The Japanese program at the UNC-CH currently does not offer a Bachelor's degree. At present, there are four Japanese courses offered beyond the second-year level. Undergraduate students can major in East Asian Studies and minor in Japanese. However, an option for majoring in Japanese is not available yet. This situation has made it difficult to design a curriculum for a K-12 Japanese teacher certification program.

In the state of North Carolina, a teacher education program must comply with the state-approved guidelines and competencies for the certified area in which the student is being prepared (see Appendix). The guidelines and competencies for the specialty area (in this case, foreign languages) focus on the skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing, and with a knowledge of literature, history, civilization, culture, and language analysis. The competencies do not address the newly-released *Standards for Foreign LanguageLearning* (1996), but rather the North Carolina Department of Education Standards as well as those of the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education. Each competency includes four to ten performance indicators, which are sub-skills under a large category.[5] In order for a student to demonstrate these competencies and sub-skills, 27 to 33 semester hours of course work in the specialty area are necessary.

Although there is talk of creating a Japanese major at UNC-CH, progress is slow in a bureaucratic setting beset with funding woes. Nevertheless, the UNC-CH School of Education is eager to act now. The most expedient solution to establishing a "major" in Japanese is found through one or two options available: to study abroad and to enroll in Japanese language courses in nearby universities.

UNC-CH has established study abroad arrangements with three universities in Japan in which education students can improve their Japanese language skills and receive hands-on experience in Japanese contemporary culture and society. In order to include this option in the teacher preparation curriculum, it was necessary to establish a coherent and consistent system of transferring credits earned in Japan to UNC-CH, since each Japanese institution has its unique curriculum for its own Japanese language program. In the transfer system that has been set up, the classroom contact hours of the courses taken at at UNC-CH and those taken at Japanese universities are compared.

French, German, and Spanish education majors are "strongly urged" to have a study abroad experience, but given the fact that there are only four upper-division Japanese courses currently offered at UNC-CH, students seeking K-12 Japanese teacher certification will be required to spend a year in Japan. Living in a target culture that is quite different from one's own will

provide students with deep insights not only into the language forms and functions, but also into the socio-cultural context where the language is used. The availability of scholarships still needs to be investigated to make this option financially more manageable for students.

Another arrangement available to UNC-CH students in order to fulfill Japanese language requirements is to have students take courses at other universities. UNC-CH has an inter-institution registration arrangement with two other universities in the area that offer Japanese courses. UNC-CH students register for these courses through UNC-CH and can fulfill the specific Japanese specialty area requirements. Depending on factors such as which Japanese university the student attends, the student will need to take up to four courses at another institution until UNC-CH has its Japanese major in place.

One factor that makes the curriculum for a Japanese teacher preparation program different from the ones for other commonly-taught languages is the entry level of the students' language proficiencies. It is common for students of French and Spanish to have had several years of previous study in the foreign language in middle school and/or high school. When they are admitted to an undergraduate program, they may be placed at the second- or third-year level of a foreign language curriculum. They can continue to take upper-division courses and simultaneously start taking education courses during their junior year. It is also possible for these students to study abroad during their sophomore year, take education courses in their junior year, graduate, and receive a teacher certificate in four years under the current system.[6] In contrast, many of the prospective students in the Japanese certification program are non-native speakers of Japanese who are likely to have had zero or only a few years of study in secondary school. Assuming that most students are placed in Japanese 101 and 102 (elementary level) during their freshmen year, they will be required to spend a year abroad, preferably during their junior year. Thus students will have to take education courses during their senior year after they come back from Japan and spend one more year to fulfill all of the requirements for teaching certification.

One of the ways to accelerate undergraduate students' study of Japanese is to institute a summer intensive language program in which either the first- or second-year Japanese course is taught. From these options, offering the second-year course seems to be more beneficial than the other from the point of view of both the School of Education and the East Asian Studies program. First, many of the students who have completed first-year Japanese want to continue their study during the summer, and providing them an opportunity to take courses during the summer would satisfy their

motivation and enhance learning. Second, completing the second-year course in the summer prior to the sophomore year would allow students to take more advanced content courses in Japanese before taking their year abroad. Third, summer school would increase the number of students in the rather small third-year Japanese class and reduce the over-enrollment in second-year classes that begin in the fall. Finally, instituting an advertised, established summer program would attract students from the entire Southeast region who could attend this summer program. Summer school would not only support the teacher certification program but would also strengthen and expand the Japanese program in the Asian Studies Program.

As mentioned earlier, a precondition for creating a foreign language teacher preparation program is to have a foreign language program that offers students opportunities to develop their knowledge and skills of the target language and culture. At the same time, setting up a K-12 foreign language certification program would potentially strengthen the language curriculum that may not be equipped initially for supporting a teacher preparation program. Creating a foreign language teacher preparation program can stimulate the need for offering more courses in the language. Offering more language courses would attract students who seek teacher certification in the language as well as students of other disciplines, and can increase the possibility of creating an undergraduate degree program. In fact, revising course descriptions and adding more new courses to the curriculum is now underway in the Asian Studies program in response to the needs for creating a K-12 Japanese certification program.

Acquisition of Library and Technology Resources

One of the standards for approval of teacher education institutions and programs in North Carolina is the availability of adequate resources for accomplishing the objectives for each specialty area. The resources include specialized books and periodicals, textbooks, equipment and other forms of technology, testing materials, and supplies for the production of teacher-made materials.

Students and faculty at UNC-CH have access to a large collection of Japanese books and periodicals at the Duke University Library, which is located ten miles from the UNC campus. This resource is made available through the Duke-UNC-CH Cooperative East Asian Collection Development Program, which divides the responsibility of collecting Japanese titles and Chinese titles between Duke and UNC-CH in order to use financial resources effectively. The UNC-CH Library also holds a limited number of titles in Japanese, and it is possible to acquire some additional titles

specifically on teaching Japanese as a foreign language. The Learning and Technology Center in the School of Education at UNC-CH also has limited funds available for computer-assisted Japanese language teaching materials. It will be necessary to seek additional funding from outside the university to be fully equipped with adequate resources.

Exit Criteria

In the state of North Carolina, education students of foreign languages must pass the Professional Knowledge (Core Battery, Part III) of the National Teacher Examination (NTE) and the Subject Assessment Tests of PRAXIS II during their senior year in order to be certified. There is a Japanese test in the PRAXIS II, and students in the Japanese certification program will be required to take it. Also, education students of other foreign languages (French, German, and Spanish) have to demonstrate an oral proficiency of at least Advanced on the ACTFL Oral Proficiency Interview (OPI) before they are allowed to start student teaching during the last semester in the program.

However, the Advanced level on the OPI scale seems too stringent for non-native speakers of Japanese, because the amount of time necessary for native speakers of English to reach any functional proficiency level in Japanese is considerably more than the amount of time necessary for learning commonly-taught Indo-European languages such as French and Spanish. Among the foreign languages taught at the Foreign Service Institute and the Defense Language Institute, Category 4 languages ("truly foreign languages") including Arabic, Chinese, Japanese, and Korean, need 1,320 contact hours to ensure a proficiency level of 2 on the Interagency Language Roundtable Scale (an equivalent of ACTFL Advanced) for an English native speaker with average language learning aptitude. On the other hand, Category 1 languages ("cognate languages") including French and Spanish, require only 480 contact hours to ensure the same proficiency level (Walton 1991). It cannot be assumed that thirty semester hours of undergraduate study in French or Spanish and the same amount of study in Japanese will result in the same oral proficiency level. A requirement of Intermediate-High on the OPI, therefore, is more realistic for students of Japanese.

The ACTFL scale of Intermediate-High is also adopted as an exit requirement in the Foreign Language Teaching License in Japanese Program at the University of Oregon. In this program, which is post-baccalaureate, the admission requirement of oral proficiency in Japanese is a minimum of Intermediate-Mid, and those who are admitted into the

program with this level are required to take language courses until they reach Intermediate-High. The state of California has set a standard for speaking, listening, reading, and writing proficiency for teacher credentialing at a level equivalent to the Advanced level in the ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines across different foreign languages. However, personal communications with some college-level professors of Japanese have revealed that there is a great amount of dissatisfaction among Japanese educators with this criterion, since it does not take into account the fact that it takes longer to achieve any proficiency level in Japanese compared to other European languages. Therefore at UNC-CH, the level of Intermediate-High on the ACTFL OPI seems to be a reasonable requirement that colleagues of Japanese education across the nation would support.

Conclusions

Being faced with the opportunity to create a K-12 Japanese teacher certification program can be both exciting and daunting at the same time. Perhaps one of the most essential ingredients in a successful launching of any new program not heretofore mentioned is that all participants in the project have the same philosophy. At UNC-CH, all of the key players believe that all foreign languages are learned in inherently the same way, that is, they are acquired most effectively when taught in context, and that the learners must be provided with meaningful, hands-on, concrete experiences. It must also be recognized that there are differences in less-commonly taught languages that must be accounted for in any program, such as the fact that unlike students of Spanish, French, or German, students of Japanese have had little or no exposure to the language in their K-12 careers, and that it will take students of Japanese longer to achieve any level of proficiency, since Japanese is a Category 4 language.

Finally, it is recommended that all creative solutions be considered for any dilemmas encountered during the process. For example, at UNC-CH, it is frustrating that a Japanese major is not yet in place and that the wheels of implementation move very slowly. Yet, to delay the K-12 certification for years because of a ponderous bureaucracy would be too slow and possibly lose the momentum of the School of Education as well as limit even more the growth of K-12 Japanese programs in the schools. Brainstorming and a search for creative solutions will lead to a successful replication of this project.

Notes

1. It was also found that one university in Colorado, one in Indiana, one in Massachusetts, one in Texas, and one in Wisconsin offer secondary teacher certification programs in Japanese.
2. The Department of Asian and African Languages and Literatures at Duke University is in the process of developing an undergraduate degree in Japanese. Duke will be the first university in North Carolina where undergraduate students can major in Japanese.
3. Upon implementation of Professional Development Schools in 1998, the School of Education will offer an MAT program for special subjects including foreign languages. Admission to this program will be based on successful completion of a B.A. in an appropriate Arts and Sciences major.
4. California State University in Los Angeles recently increased the number of required upper-division courses from 48 to 60 quarter hours in order to meet the new "Standards for Subject Matter Competency in Languages Other Than English" (Commission on Teacher Credentialing 1994), which places a greater focus on linguistics and courses concerning the target language. According to the new standards, students have to complete a minimum of 30 semester hours (45 quarter hours) of upper-division course work that reflects a balance of language, culture, literature, and applied linguistics.
5. For instance, there are five performance indicators for the first competency, "Listen with comprehension to the second language at a rate considered average for an educated native speaker": (1) Listen to conventional questions and respond appropriately either in writing (to a questionnaire) or orally (to an examiner or a tape); (2) Listen to a five-minute taped newscast or other factual statement (taking notes if desired) and summarize and paraphrase what was heard; (3) Listen to a taped dialogue or narrative and respond appropriately to intonational differences that affect meaning; (4) Listen to short series of passages and indicate the common thematic element; and (5) Listen to a non-culture bound anecdote, and respond appropriately.
6. As explained in note 2 , once the Professional Development Schools program is implemented, the teacher training segment will become a graduate (fifth-year) level.

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Appendix

Guidelines and Competencies for the Approval of Foreign Language Teacher Education Programs in North Carolina

Guidelines

Standard 8. **The program of specialty studies complies with State-approved guidelines for the certification area in which the student is being prepared.**

Guideline 1. The program should insure that prospective second language teachers have proficiency in four skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing.

Guideline 2. The program should provide an emphasis on language analysis.

Guideline 3. The program should include a study of the literature, history and civilization of the country concerned.

Guideline 4. The program should include instruction in methods, materials, and equipment specifically related to the teaching of modern foreign language.

Guideline 5. The program should include a comparative study of the target language and culture and of English and the American culture.

Guideline 6. The program should include a study of language acquisition.

Guideline 7. The program should include a study of the legislative and historical background of education for students of second language in the United States and in North Carolina.

Guideline 8. The program should develop an awareness of the need for continuing education and professional development.

Guideline 9. The program should include a study of the State's second language curriculum and how it fits into the public school curriculum at all grade levels.

Competencies

Standard 9. The specialty studies comply with state-approved competencies for the certification area in which the student is being prepared.

(Note: In the following only large categories are listed.)

1.0 Listen with comprehension to the second language at a rate considered average for an educated native speaker.

2.0 Speak the second language with sufficient proficiency in vocabulary and syntax to express both abstract and concrete thoughts at normal speed with pronunciation, stress, rhythm, and intonation commensurate with the teacher's role as a second language model.

3.0 Read with comprehension general printed matter on the literal, interpretive and critical levels.

4.0 Write clearly, correctly, and effectively in the second language.

5.0 Demonstrate the ability to recognize and reproduce the linguistic components of the second language.

6.0 Demonstrate a general knowledge of the distinctive features of the second language in comparison with English.

7.0 Demonstrate a general knowledge of the literature, history, geography, national festivals, lifestyles, verbal and non-verbal behaviors, social customs, and traditions and achievements of the country where the language is spoken.

8.0 Identify and discuss the ways in which children, young adolescents, adolescents, and adults learn and acquire first and second languages.

9.0 Identify and discuss major methodologies in K-12 second language teaching.

10.0 Employ major techniques and strategies for teaching listening, speaking, reading, writing, and culture in K-12 second language studies at various grade level.

11.0 Demonstrate the ability to select, adapt and develop appropriate instructional materials for use in K-12 second language instruction.

12.0 Demonstrate knowledge of K-12 second language evaluative instruments and techniques.

13.0 Understand the history and legislation for K-12 second language education in the United States and North Carolina.

14.0 Participate in curriculum development.

15.0 Demonstrate the ability to organize and effective K-12 second language instructional environment.

4

Student Use of Interactive MultimediaTechnology for Second Language Listening Comprehension

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In a discussion of the use of video and Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL) in second language teaching, Ariew (1987) lists several disadvantages of each medium. He notes the linearity of video as one of its chief drawbacks. It is difficult to find and repeat specific segments. Ariew also points out that there is no possibility of interaction when using videotape. It is a "one-way medium" to which students have no opportunity to offer "input" (47). CALL has the disadvantage of being voiceless, containing text and graphics only. In addition, Ariew notes, CALL has a low realism factor. Unfortunately, these observations are true. But recent advancements in technology have made possible the combination of video and CALL to form a new way to improve foreign language skills.

Interactive multimedia programs are learning systems that integrate audio and video with computer programs, allowing students to interact with the material. Students can listen to people speaking, watch their gestures and facial expressions, access transcripts of their conversations, and assess their progress with interactive exercises. Interactive multimedia offers much more than video, for, when watching a video in class, students can watch and listen, but cannot easily stop the video to listen again or read the words being spoken.

While the pool of research that has been carried out in the area of interactive multimedia (also called interactive videodisc) and second language acquisition is still quite small, the results are encouraging. "The 1986 thesis by Catherine Watts noted substantially enhanced motivation, satisfaction, and language acquisition" (Coleman 1991: 110). Borrás (1993) reports the effectiveness of *Practicing Spoken French*, a multimedia program using computer and videodisc designed to foster L2 speaking skills. Bush and Crotty (1989) also describe promising news in the area of interactive multimedia and L2 oral skills. The preliminary results of the VELVET (Video Enhanced Learning, Video Enhanced Teaching) project—a joint endeavor of the Defense Language Institute, Brigham Young University, and the National Security Agency—suggest that students studying with an interactive videodisc program receive higher scores in oral interviews than those studying without that technology. A number of studies have also shown interactive multimedia to be effective in increasing students' comprehension and retention of the content of video. Schrupp et al. (cited in Bush and Crotty 1989) report that students who viewed a twelve-minute film through an interactive videodisc presentation understood and remembered it better than students who were presented the same film through more conventional methods. In a similar experiment, Crotty (cited in Bush and Crotty 1989) found that the videodisc group scored higher than the classroom group on a post-test including general comprehension, vocabulary, and grammar items. Finally, research by Verano (1989) suggests that students working in an interactive video environment fare better on content-based achievement tests than students watching video without the possibility for interaction.

Interactive Multimedia and L2 Listening Comprehension

The results of these studies are certainly enlightening, but it seems that the area that has the most to gain from interactive multimedia use, namely listening comprehension, has been neglected. As with video, one of the most valuable strengths of interactive multimedia as it pertains to enhancing listening comprehension is the possibility for variety. Through video and interactive multimedia teachers can expose learners to many different speakers and messages. Videos can show interactions in natural settings likely to be encountered by learners. Instead of listening to a scripted exchange by an actor playing the part of a butcher and an actress trying to sound like a customer, viewers can "enter" a real butcher's shop and listen to the orders of real customers. Learners may be distracted by the noise they hear such as people speaking in the background, the cash register opening

and closing, meat grinders, but part of learning to listen is learning to block out extraneous sounds. Teachers should prepare students by exposing them to real conversation in real settings.

Visitors to the target culture will also have to play different roles in conversational interactions and be required to attend to different things. For example, in the role of a customer, a listener must pay attention to the amount of money he is asked to pay. A learner will likely ask for directions and must be prepared to understand responses he receives. A learner may also be *asked* for directions or other information on the street. As a café patron in Paris, a learner might enjoy playing the role of an eavesdropper.

It is impossible to prepare learners for all the roles they may need or want to play in the target culture, but interactive multimedia can provide them with a variety of listening tasks to help them learn to listen in different ways. One exercise may require listeners to extract specific information. This is a skill they will need in order to hear prices quoted by vendors. Another exercise may require learners to pay special attention to non-verbal components of speech like gestures and facial expressions. Learning this skill may help students interpret the directions they receive from a passerby. And exercises that demand listening for the gist, that is, listening for the overall message of a spoken text, may enable students to glean a general understanding of that conversation in the café, or (for those less interested in the affairs of others) of a report on the evening news.

Interactive multimedia can do little to change the natural cognitive abilities of a learner. It can, however, help develop learners' world knowledge and schemata. Through working with culturally authentic video clips, students can not only be exposed to the target culture but acquire certain cultural knowledge. Through the butcher shop footage imagined previously, a student may learn the French practice of first placing one's meat order with the butcher, then, after receiving a slip of paper inscribed with the sum to be paid, paying the cashier before returning to the meat counter to retrieve the order.

Interactive multimedia cannot provide opportunities for students to communicate with real people, but it does provide another kind of interaction. One of the chief advantages to interactive multimedia is the ability of users to replay videoclips (or portions thereof) as many times as they desire. Learners can play videos several times to try to understand what a speaker is saying. They can also read a transcription of the message and then listen again to try to hear specific words, phrases, or intonation. Students are also in control of the direction they take in interactive multimedia programs. One student may experience a particular program in ways different from his classmates. In addition, an interactive multimedia program, like other

computer programs, can evaluate short responses and give immediate feedback, providing another (though admittedly limited) form of interaction.

While many studies attempt to determine if interactive multimedia programs are effective, very little is known about how individual learners use these programs. What strategies are they using and which of these strategies lead to improvement in L2 aural proficiency? This project analyzes the learning styles of students as they use an interactive multimedia program and identifies strategies used by successful and less successful learners.

Methods

Subjects.

Twelve students enrolled in one section of French 101b at Vanderbilt University constituted the experimental sample. French 101b is the second semester of a two-semester first-year course which fulfills the foreign-language requirement for some majors in different colleges of Vanderbilt University. Of the twelve subjects, eight were women and four were men. All subjects completed a pre-study questionnaire (see Appendix A) prior to the onset of the experiment. The subjects' responses to this questionnaire indicated they were all freshmen and had an average age of 17.9 years. The subjects had studied French for an average of 3.4 years prior to this study. All subjects also took an aural pre-test[1] before the beginning of the study.

Materials.

Nouvelles Dimensions (Noblitt and Wolf 1995), the program used in this project, is an interactive multimedia program for learners of French that combines video, audio, and text in a computer-based program. Full-motion video shows everyday speech in natural contexts, and on-screen activities provide writing and listening exercises with a cross-cultural emphasis. *Nouvelles Dimensions* is a program appropriate for elementary-level learners and has been used experimentally at Vanderbilt University for the past two years. Furthermore, this program has a tracking feature which records the amount of time a student spends using the program, dates and times of use, and the number of items correctly answered in the "Exercises" portions of the program.

Nouvelles Dimensions contains ten "chapters" organized by content. Each chapter is composed of four or five subsections, each of which is composed of one or more video segments. These video segments vary in

length from 15 seconds to 4 minutes, and each is broken down into between 3 and 18 very short video clips (2-10 seconds in length).[2] A user may choose to watch a whole video segment at once or may watch its clips individually by going through the "pages" of the chapter.

Preparation.

At the beginning of the project, the researcher presented *Nouvelles Dimensions* to all subjects (as a whole class), showing all features of the program. Later, subjects were given hands-on instruction (in groups of two) on how to use the computer and videodisc player required to run the program. During these sessions subjects practiced manipulating the hardware, starting the program, logging in, and quitting the program.

Procedure.

All subjects completed seven "chapters" of *Nouvelles Dimensions* during the course of the semester in an order chosen to coincide as much as possible with the content and functions being covered in their textbook. For each *Nouvelles Dimensions* session, the subjects went to the Language Center to use the program individually on their own time. To ensure the completion of the assignments, a quiz over the content of each chapter assigned was given in class on a previously-specified day. During the fourth *Nouvelles Dimensions* session, subjects were asked to use the program as they normally did while a video camera taped their sessions. The video camera was aimed to record only the activity on the computer monitor. The fourth session was chosen because it was the midpoint of the project. Since they had already used the program several times, it was assumed that, by this point, subjects would have settled into a pattern of using the program and would no longer be experiencing any difficulties. For the videotaping session, subjects worked with *Nouvelles Dimensions* using the same computer they had used since the beginning of the project. They were told that the video camera would be focused only on the computer screen, not on them. They were also asked to try to ignore its presence and work as they would under normal conditions. Subjects were allowed two hours to complete the chapter assigned. It was decided that this amount of time would be sufficient, as no student had spent more than one hour and fifteen minutes on any chapter up to this point in the project. Indeed, no students indicated that the time limit influenced their use of the program.

At the end of the project, all subjects completed an aural post-test and a second questionnaire (Appendix B) during regular class time.

Results

Test Results and Calculation of Residual Gain Scores.

Table 1 presents the pre-test and post-test scores for each subject. For this study, however, these figures are not sufficient to measure a subject's achievement gain in listening comprehension over the length of the project. The post-test score gives an indication of a subject's proficiency, but not necessarily of how much she improved during the project. For example, a subject scoring 85 on the post-test may have the highest score in the class, but if she had also made an 85 on the pre-test, she has shown no gain. Another possibility for determining a subject's success would be to subtract her pre-test score from her post-test score and call the difference her "improvement." But "such a posttest-minus-pretest measure ... is contaminated by the regression effect; the gain scores ... usually correlate negatively with pretest scores" (Glass and Hopkins 1996: 167). This calculation would then tend to favor subjects who started the project at a lower level of proficiency. The method suggested by Glass and Hopkins (1996) is to predict subjects' post-test scores based on their pre-test scores[1], then calculate the difference between each subject's expected score and his actual score. This deviation, termed *residual gain*, can be seen as a measure

Table 1.
Pre- and Post-Test Results, Expected Post-Test Scores and Residual Gain Scores

Subject	Pre-test	Post-test	Expected post-test	Residual Gain Score
1	78.3	67.4	73.6	-6.2
2	65.2	63.0	61.5	1.5
3	67.4	63.0	63.6	-0.5
4	58.7	56.5	55.5	1.0
5	60.9	41.3	57.6	-16.3
6	63.0	56.5	59.5	-3.0
7	71.7	60.9	67.5	-6.7
8	71.7	65.2	67.5	-2.3
9	60.9	54.35	7.6	-3.2
10	65.2	73.96	1.5	12.4
11	60.9	71.7	57.6	14.2
12	78.2	82.6	73.5	9.1

of success above and beyond what was predictable from the pre-test alone. And, since these residual gain scores are unrelated to subjects' pre-test scores, it is possible to use them to determine which subjects encountered the most success during the project without having to take into account their initial level of proficiency. So, in addition to pre-test and post-test scores, Table 1 also includes "expected" post-test scores and residual gain scores. All data analysis for the project described in this chapter was carried out on the basis of residual gain scores. Pearson correlation tests were performed to determine the correlations between variables.

Pre-Study Questionnaire Data.

The subjects' responses to the pre-study questionnaire were analyzed for correlation with subjects' residual gain scores. There was a significant negative correlation ($r = -0.64$, $p = 0.027$) between residual gain score and years of experience in French. That is to say that students who had been studying French the longest had the least success in this project. The positive correlation ($r = 0.59$, $p = 0.045$) between residual gain score and attitude toward French shows that students who claimed to like French the most also found the most success in this project. There was no significant relationship between subjects' success and their reported comfort using computers, but there was a positive correlation (approaching statistical significance at $p = 0.063$) between subjects' performance and how much they reported to like (or think they would like) learning with computers.

Analysis of videotapes.

The videotapes of subjects using *Nouvelles Dimensions* during the fourth assignment of the project were analyzed in the following manner: while viewing each videotape, the teacher investigator noted how much time the subject spent on each "page" of the chapter and what actions the subject took on each particular page. Depending on the section of the chapter, possible actions include playing a video clip, replaying a video clip, asking for a transcription, asking for a translation, clicking to answer a question, typing a response to a question, checking an answer, and asking for a visual cue (in Exercises section only). Then, computations were done to determine the average number of seconds spent per page, the average number of times each video clip was played, the percentage of transcriptions requested, and the percentage of translations requested. A Pearson correlation test indicated a significant negative correlation ($r = -0.63$, $p = 0.028$) between the percentage of transcriptions a subject requested and his or her residual gain score. That is, subjects who found the most success during the

project were also the ones who requested the fewest transcriptions. A similar negative correlation (approaching significance, $r = -0.52$, $p = 0.086$) was found to exist between residual gain score and translations requested. No significant correlation was found to exist between residual gain scores and either average plays per video clip or time spent per page.

While analyzing subjects' video tapes as described above, the teacher investigator made a number of unexpected observations. First of all, the majority of subjects did not take advantage of all of the features of *Nouvelles Dimensions*. None of the subjects ever watched a video segment in its entirety, preferring to watch the clips separately. Also, subjects did not appear to spend time thinking about discussion questions provided by the program. As soon as a question of this type appeared on the screen, subjects immediately moved on to the next page. Secondly, some features of *Nouvelles Dimensions* were used in ways that were probably not intended by the creators of the program. Many subjects regularly requested transcriptions and translations before video clips finished playing. Some subjects did not even watch all of the clips, preferring only to read the transcriptions and/or translations before continuing. Rarely did subjects replay a video clip after having requested a transcription and/or translation. Only one subject did so routinely. These observations indicate that subjects did not always use *Nouvelles Dimensions* in the most beneficial ways and that many of the subjects did not employ good listening strategies.

Other Data

During the whole course of the project, that is, during all seven chapters of *Nouvelles Dimensions* covered during the semester, the program recorded the amount of time each subject spent using the computer. No correlation was found to exist between the average amount of time subjects spent completing a chapter and their residual gain scores.

In the questionnaire which subjects completed at the end of the project, they were asked to rate their enjoyment of *Nouvelles Dimensions*. No correlation was found between subjects' success in this project and their enjoyment of the program.

Subjects' final grades, participation grades, and number of absences during the semester were also compared to their residual gain scores. No significant correlation was found between residual gain scores and any of these measures.

Table 2 on the next page presents a summary of the results of Pearson correlation tests comparing subjects' residual gain scores with various pre- and post-measures. The results suggest that successful users have less

experience in French but more favorable attitude toward French and toward learning with computers than less-successful users. More-successful users also tend to request transcriptions and translations less frequently than less-successful users.

Table 2.

Summary of Correlations Between Subjects' Residual Gain Scores and Other Variables

Variable	Pearson r	Probability (p)
Years Experience in French	-0.64	*0.027
Attitude toward French from 1 (most negative) to 10 (most positive)	0.59	*0.045
Comfort using computers from 1 (extremely uncomfortable to 10 (extremely comfortable)	0.20	0.53
Attitude toward learning with computers from 1 (most negative) to 10 (most positive)	0.55	0.063
Time spent per page	-0.34	0.28
Time spent per chapter	-0.34	0.29
Plays per clip	0.37	0.24
Transcriptions requested	-0.63	*0.028
Translations requested	-0.52	0.086
Attitude toward using *Nouvelles Dimensions*from 1 (most negative) to 10 (most positive)	0.25	0.43
Final Grade in class	0.41	0.19
Class Participation Grade	0.26	0.41
Absences during semester	-0.0069	0.98
Gender	0.12	0.71

Discussion

A quick glance at the results of this study seems to suggest that students whose listening comprehension proficiency increased most through the use of an interactive multimedia program were generally those who (1) liked the target language, and (2) liked (or thought they would like) learning with computers. These results are easy to interpret. Learners who are more excited about the subject matter are likely to want to improve for intrinsic reasons. They might pursue goals higher than the standards set by the teacher. And it comes as no surprise that learners who have a more favorable attitude toward learning with computers gain more from using an interactive multimedia program. It is interesting that the most successful learners were not necessarily more successful in general (based on regular class grades) or more motivated learners (based on class participation grades and attendance). But perhaps the subjects who gained the most from using this program on their own possess different learning styles from their peers. It is possible that the interactive multimedia environment caters to their needs. They may be individuals who learn better when working on their own and at their own pace.

Students who were less successful in this study tended to be those who (1) had more experience in French, and (2) requested more transcriptions and translations. That the less-successful learners had had more instruction in French is not very surprising. These students may have already been exposed to many of the subjects covered in *Nouvelles Dimensions*. Perhaps not finding the content to be new to them, they may have been less interested than their classmates, and may, therefore, have worked with less enthusiasm. It was expected that students requesting more transcriptions and translations would benefit less from using *Nouvelles Dimensions* than students who made fewer such requests. Even though most students reported in their post-study questionnaires that they requested transcriptions and translations only to verify their comprehension of video clips, it seems likely that students could come to depend too heavily on these tools.And those students who relied on the transcriptions and translations benefited less from using the program than students who made only occasional use of these features.

Basing an opinion on these results, one can assert that dependence on transcriptions and translations constitutes an ineffective strategy for interactive multimedia use. One can also imagine what effective interactive multimedia strategies would include. For example, one would expect a successful learner to request a transcription only after having first tried to understand a video clip on his own. Likewise, the effective interactive

multimedia user would use a translation only as a last resort, only after having watched a video clip several times, having requested a transcription, and having watched the clip a few more times. Then, after using a transcription and/or translation, one would expect the learner to watch the video clip at least one more time. This type of behavior was not witnessed in any of the subjects' recorded *Nouvelles Dimensions* sessions.

Additional Findings

While the main goal of this project was to determine what strategies are effective in interactive multimedia use, another discovery was made with regard to student use. While analyzing the video tapes made of subjects' computer sessions, the teacher investigator observed that different types of *Nouvelles Dimensions* pages produced different responses from subjects. In Chapter Four (the chapter subjects completed while being videotaped), there are four different types of "pages." Type I pages include a video clip whose transcription, missing one or two words, is already displayed on the screen (learners do not have the option of requesting it or not). Also on the screen is a scrolling list of vocabulary words in French (translation available upon request). The learner's job is to watch the video clip and to complete the transcription by choosing the correct word(s) from the vocabulary list. All subjects approached these pages in the same way—alternately playing and replaying the video and clicking on words. On Type I pages, subjects played each video clip an average of 2.24 times, as indicated in Table 3.

Type II pages consist of a video clip (with transcription and translation available upon request) and a guiding question in English (e.g., "How long has Sabine been playing the organ?"). There were two basic approaches to Type II pages. Most subjects played the video first, then requested the transcription, then requested the translation, then went on to the next page. It is not possible to tell if they read the guiding question and/or tried to answer it. Some subjects appeared to request the transcription and/or translation only if they had trouble understanding the video while others seemed to proceed mechanically from step to step. Only one subject (who made the second-greatest improvement from pre-test to post-test) consistently replayed the video after reading the transcription and translation. On Type II pages, the subjects played each video clip an average of 1.21 times, as seen in Table 3, next page.

On a Type III page, students are presented with a video clip and the instructions to "observe" something as they view the video (e.g., "Observe pronunciation as the children give their ages"). Playing the video is the only possible action on these pages. On Type III pages, subjects played each

video clip an average of 0.85 times, as indicated in Table 3. This small number indicates that some subjects did not even play all video clips once.

Type IV pages are found in the "Exercises" part of each *Nouvelles Dimensions* chapter. When a student enters a Type IV page, she hears the audio portion of a video segment from another section of the chapter, but does not see the video. Also on the screen is a transcription of the audio clip with a word missing. The student is to type in the missing word and check her answer. If she has supplied the correct response, the video clip (with audio) is then played automatically. If not, the audio portion only is replayed

Table 3.

Plays Per Video Clip by Page Type

Page Type	Plays per video clip (average)
I	2.24
II	1.21
III	0.85
IV	3.28

Table 4.

Results of Tukey HSD Test (Adapted)

PageTypes	Difference	HSD*
I, II	1.030	.697
I, III	1.390	.776
I, IV	1.030	.492
II, III	0.3590	.327
II, IV	2.070	.642
III, IV	2.430	.775

* The HSD (Honestly Significant Difference) is the difference required for statistical significance at the 0.05 significance level.

Differences between all pairs of page types were found to be significant at the 0.05 level.

automatically, and the student is instructed to try again. After once answering incorrectly, the student has the additional options of requesting a "video cue," the first frame of the video segment whose audio portion the student has just heard, or asking for the full transcription. If the full transcription is requested, the answer is given, thenthe video clip (with audio) is played automatically. Most subjects approached Type IV pages by alternately playing the audio clip and typing in guesses until they completed the transcription correctly. Rarely did subjects request video cues or give up and ask for the complete transcription. On Type IV pages, subjects played each video clip an average of 3.28 times.

An analysis of variance was performed on the data in Table 3 in order to determine if there were any significant differences between page types. This test revealed that at least one of the differences between page types was significant. In order to determine which difference this was, a follow-up analysis was performed using a version of Tukey's HSD Test adapted for repeated measures (described in Hays 1994). The results of this test are presented in Table 4.

In summary, Type IV pages (those which ask learners to type in an answer) encouraged the subjects to play video clips the greatest number of times. Type I pages (in which learners must click on an answer) received the second highest number of plays per clip. The third highest number of plays per clip came on Type II pages (which ask learners questions to guide their viewing). And finally, Type III pages (which ask learners to "observe" something) inspired the lowest number of plays per clip.

Limitations of the Study

The results of this study may be limited by the fact that a learner's strategies are difficult to determine on the basis of just one of their sessions with the computer program. First of all, though a researcher may plead with learners to act as they usually do, there is no way to be sure that their activities while being videotaped are typical of their normal use of the program. In addition, learner strategies vary with the type of interaction demanded by the program and the difficulty of each video clip. Ideally, this portion of the study would have involved videotaping every computer session by every user. This option was, unfortunately, not practical.

Finally, the results of this study, like those of any project relying on a particular computer program, are limited by the choice of program and by the program's own limitations. *Nouvelles Dimensions* was chosen for use in this project because of its availability to the teacher investigator and its appropriateness for the level of her students.

Conclusion

Results of the video tape analysis of students using *Nouvelles Dimensions* support the notion that students who rely too much on linguistic aid offered by the program gain less from its use than students who make more forthright attempts to understand video clips on their own. *Nouvelles Dimensions* offers transcriptions and translations for almost all video clips. The percentage of transcriptions and translations that students requested was found to be negatively correlated with their achievement in listening comprehension. In addition, it was observed that students failed to take advantage of all of the program's features and employed less than ideal strategies. Many students sought transcriptions and translations in an automatic fashion and seemed to regard the video image as secondary or even superfluous.

That students working individually fail to employ ideal learning strategies is not surprising. Research by Oxford (1994) indicates that learners may require training in strategy use. If students are to use interactive multimedia programs for language learning individually, they may benefit from learning about strategies appropriate for the skills they are trying to develop. For example, teachers whose students will be using a program such as *Nouvelles Dimensions* to enhance listening comprehension skills should suggest that students try to understand video clips without relying on transcriptions and translations, that they try to anticipate answers to questions asked by the program before watching the clips, and that they replay video clips after viewing transcriptions. Simple strategy training might make a great deal out difference in learning outcomes.

Finally, one of the most interesting and important findings of this study is the variance of learners' strategies according to the levels of interaction of the program. Pages of the program that demand no interaction, asking the learner to be a passive observer, produce no interaction. Students merely play the video (and sometimes fail even to do that) and go on. Pages that ask questions of the student, but give him no opportunity to check his understanding of the video clip other than requesting transcription and/or translation, produce a bit more activity on the learner's part. But pages that demand interaction from learners by asking them to select or type in an answer, produce much activity. Learners play the video many more times than on the other page types, and they invest their energies in understanding what is being said in the video. If it is true, as Verano (1989) claims, that students who are active during instruction learn better than students who remain passive, then high levels of student interaction should be a primary goal of IMM programs.

The results of this project show what students do when using an interactive multimedia program on their own. Certainly there are many factors involved in individual computer use. What one does while using an interactive multimedia program for language learning may depend on one's purpose for using the program, one's interest in the material, and one's level of linguistic and cultural knowledge, among other things. But, even given the narrow scope of this project, some observed traits and strategies stand out as helpful or detrimental to one's success using interactive multimedia.

The notion of learning a foreign language has been evolving to include a more global perspective. Through technology, new dimensions can be added to language and culture study. Students can hear the target language spoken by a wide variety of native speakers and can see interactions in real-life cultural contexts. Students' horizons can be widened, and they can acquire a truer sense of the target language and its cultures.

Learning a language is still about learning to communicate and to express ideas. The L2 classroom community will continue to play a central role in language learning. Interactions between teacher and student and among students have intrinsic social and linguistic value. However, we are seeing the beginnings of a technological revolution. Interactive multimedia technology provides the classroom with many pedagogical resources as well as instant access to videos, photographs, and other authentic materials. For this reason, teachers and researchers should not waste energy defending the foreign language classroom against what some see as an invasion of technology but should channel their efforts into determining how to use this new medium.

Notes

1. The pre-test and post-test each consisted of short-answer questions about one video segment and several audio segments (unrelated to *Nouvelles Dimensions*, the program used in this project). Tests were scored blindly by the teacher investigator on the basis of answers determined to be acceptable before the grading began.
2. Although the terms "video sigment" and "video clip" are often used interchangeably, the author wishes to make a distinction while discussing the *Nouvelles Dimensions* program. The term "segment" will refer to the video portion of a chapter subsection. The term "clip" will be used to indicate the short pieces into which each segment is divided.
3. This prediction is based on the equation of the regression line for the data.

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APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE 1

Age _____ Gender M / F

Year in college Freshman Sophomore Junior Senior

What is your native language?

Do you speak any other languages (other than French)?

If so, which one(s) and how well?

How many years of high school French have you had?

How many semesters of college French have you had (not including Fall 1995)?

Have you ever been to France or to a French-speaking country?

If so, how long did you spend there?

What was your purpose in going?

If you spent more than a few days, where did you stay? With whom?

Have you spent time with anyone who speaks French as a native language (a friend or relative, perhaps)? If so, please explain. (How much time, how often, etc.)

On a scale from 1 to 10, how well do you like French? (1=hate it, 10=love it)

Why?

Do you plan to continue your study of French after you have completed the courses required for your college degree?

Of the four language skills (listening, speaking, reading, writing), which is your strongest in French?

Second strongest? Third strongest? Weakest?

On a scale from 1 to 10, rate how much you think you would understand in a conversation with a native French speaker. (1=complete lack of comprehension, 10=total comprehension)

Did your French teacher(s) in the past ever use videos or audio cassette tapes to help you learn to understand spoken French?

If so, approximately how often?

On a scale from 1 to 10, how comfortable do you feel using computers? (1=extremely uncomfortable, 10=extremely comfortable)

Have you ever used an interactive multimedia (i.e. video + audio + computer) program or game? If so, which one(s)?

Have you ever used an interactive multimedia program for a foreign language class? If so, which one(s)?

On a scale from 1 to 10, rate how well you like (or how well you think you would like) learning with computers. (1=hate it, 10=love it)

In general, do you prefer learning on your own or in a classroom setting? Why?

APPENDIX B

QUESTIONNAIRE IIA

Your responses on this questionnaire will not affect your grade in any way, so please answer the following questions HONESTLY!

USE OF *NOUVELLES DIMENSIONS*

How many times (on average) did you watch each video segment?

How often did you read and try to answer the guiding questions that accompanied each video segment?

Always Often Occasionally Rarely Never

When you read them, did you do so before or after watching the video clip?

Always before Usually before Usually after Always after

How often did you understand what was being said the first time you listened?

Always Often Occasionally Rarely Never

What techniques did you use to figure out what was being said?

Indicate the order in which you *usually* performed the following actions. If you didn't usually perform one or more of the actions, put an X in its blank. If you usually did something more than once, you may place several numbers in its blank.

_____ Read guiding information / question(s)
_____ Try to answer guiding question(s)
_____ Watch video segment
_____ Ask for transcription ("Show text")
_____ Ask for translation
_____ Other action (specify) _____

How often did you ask for the transcription of what was being said?

Always Often Occasionally Rarely Never

Did you usually ask for a transcription before or after watching a video clip?

Always before Usually before Usually after Always after

How often did you watch a video clip again after reading the transcription?

Always Often Occasionally Rarely Never

Why did you ask for transcriptions? (Check the answer that best describes how you felt in *most* of the cases when you asked for transcriptions while using *ND*.)

____ I couldn't understand video segment
____ I wanted to check my understanding of the video segment
____ I thought I should because it was available
____ I didn't want to spend time trying to understand video segment
____ Other reason (explain) _____

How often did you ask for a translation of the transcription?

Always Often Occasionally Rarely Never

Why did you ask for translations? (Check the answer that best describes how you felt in *most* of the cases when you asked for translations while using *ND*.)

____ I couldn't understand transcription
____ I wanted to check my understanding of the transcription
____ I thought I should because it was available
____ I didn't want to spend time trying to read transcription
____ Other reason (explain) _____

Did you ever enlarge the video screen and watch a whole video?

If so, how often did you do this?

Did you watch the whole video before, after, or instead of watching the video segments?

How often did you read and think about the questions that appear at the end of some chapter subsections?

Always Often Occasionally Rarely Never

Approximately how long would you spend thinking about each question?

Approximately what percentage of the exercises at the end of each chapter did you complete?

If you made mistakes, how often did you go back to correct your answers?

Always Often Occasionally Rarely Never

Did you take notes while using *ND*? If so, what kinds of things did you write down?

Appreciation of *Nouvelles Dimensions*

On a scale from 1 to 10, how well did you like using *Nouvelles Dimensions*? (1=hated it, 10=loved it) Why?

In which of the following areas do you feel *ND* helped you (if any)?

_____ Listening
_____ Speaking
_____ Reading
_____ Writing
_____ Other area(s) (explain) _____

Do you think *ND* is more helpful than listening to cassette tapes? If so, why and how much?

Which chapter of *ND* did you find the most difficult? (See list at end of questionnaire.) Why?

Which chapter of *ND* did you find the least difficult? Why?

What was your favorite chapter of *ND*? Why?

What was your least favorite chapter of *ND*? Why?

Did it get easier to understand what the people in the video clips were saying as the semester went along?

Would you recommend that *ND* be used as a regular part of the French 101b curriculum?

Why or why not?

Please give any other comments pertaining to *ND* or your experience with it.

If you were designing a multimedia program for students of French, how would it differ from *ND*?

How would you feel about a French class that used no book, but only a multimedia program (that included grammar explanations, exercises, dictionary, etc.)

5

Gender and Foreign Cultures in Business Language Classes

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When we as foreign language teachers inform our students of the cultural and gender realities of the target language, we not only have to reflect on the situations in the real world but also contribute to positive attitude changes by adding a critical view without falsifying information about the target cultures.

Cultural background differences between the target culture and the culture of the learner often make this goal difficult to reach. To understand cultural background, one must first look at the complexity of the country from which the language originates. The position of women in the work force is an important aspect of the cultural background. Therefore, this article will first examine the position of women in the business world, taking Germany as the main example. In the second part, representations and roles of women in business textbooks, magazines, advertising and other sources of information will be discussed.

Representation of Women in the Business World

Very little research has been done to document and compare the representation of women in the business world of various countries. In 1989, Adler and Izraeli published their first edition of *Women in Management Worldwide,* which is still the most inclusive publication of a comparative nature. Their data reveal that the work situation for women in Germany has not improved over the last fifty years and, in many instances, has become

worse. The number of working women has grown much more slowly in Germany than in the United States, despite the fact that German women were highly represented in the work force after 1945 because of jobs vacated by men who did not return from World War II. However, when the male work force grew in numbers again, women were placed back into their traditional role as homemaker. When the *Wirtschaftswunder* (economic miracle) triggered the need for an increased work force, Germans brought in foreign workers from other European countries instead of supporting more women entering careers. Until 1977, husbands had the legal right to refuse permission for their wives to work. Even today, the total number of women with leading positions in business is still only 0.52%; among university professors, women account for 3%. In addition, the existing income gap between the genders is still widening: in 1980, the difference between women's and men's gross income was 900 DM. In 1994, the difference was 1600 DM.

Instead of focusing on equal rights and equal pay in the work place, the feminist movement in Germany concentrated on issues such as social security, maternity leave, and divorce rights, which grant women protection in society in general. Very few initiatives of the feminist movement have ever been directed at equal opportunities for the career woman but rather are directed at protection for the married (or unmarried) housewife and mother, in order to make it possible for women to survive without a career or even employment. Ultimately, the focus on women's rights outside the workplace has hurt women's career opportunities: a woman's legal right, for instance, to leave work for several years to bear and raise a child and afterwards re-enter her position at the company makes her an unattractive employee from the employer's financial point of view. Rights in the workplace that are meant to give women greater flexibility to work and to take care of the family in fact produce duties and burdens that keep women from advancing in their careers. Professional women in former West Germany hoped that employment opportunities and working conditions would improve for them after the reunification of the two Germanys, since women in former East Germany had achieved equality in the working world to a much larger extent. But instead, employment opportunities and working conditions became worse for women in the former East:[1] kindergartens were closed, and women lost their jobs. Whereas 96% of all women in former East Germany were working full time before the reunification, unemployment among them is now 21.3%, compared to 10.4% among men in former East Germany. The overall high unemployment rate in Germany, 10.3% as of February 1996, makes the future outlook even more bleak.

The state generally supports a one-income family, the man normally being the breadwinner. Double-income families are being punished by unproportionately higher taxes which often make it financially not worthwhile for the wife to enter the work force. A married worker in German industry with an average income supporting a family of four brings home 24% more money (net income) than an unmarried colleague without children with the same gross income. In comparison, the difference is only 10% in the USA, 15% in Sweden, and 8% in Spain.

The German government adds another special encouragement for women to stay home and to have children by handing out *Kindergeld*, money received monthly for every child. The amount was just raised in an effort to encourage women to have more children, since the birth rate in Germany is declining drastically. Since January 1996, a family receives a monthly payment from the government for the first and second child of 200 DM, 300 DM for the third, and 350 DM for the fourth and every child thereafter. In 1997, the amount will be raised to 220 DM for the first two children.[2]

In addition, there are not enough kindergartens or day care centers. In order to make these institutions affordable, the government would need to heavily subsidize or totally finance them, as was the case in former East Germany. Furthermore, since schools are out by 1 p.m., a woman has to leave work to attend to children.

And finally, there is the issue of store closing hours: by law, stores in Germany have to close at 6:30 p.m (with the exception of Thursdays when they close at 8:30 p.m). Therefore, stores are open only an average of 50 hours per week. Since there is no time for shopping, it is nearly impossible for a person to work full time and take care of a household as well. In comparison, France and Spain, the two European countries where women have made the most progress in the last years, and Sweden, which has achieved equality to a larger extent already, have no laws limiting opening hours for stores.

The fact that the political agenda of the state is to preserve male dominance in the work force suggests high political interest and support to maintain the traditional role of women as mothers and housewives. Even the rather powerful labor unions have not made an effort to support women's careers but rather have focused on achieving wages high enough for one person to support the entire family. Influential and powerful forces still actively undermine women in their careers and even prevent them from getting into powerful positions. For example, Rudolf Wassermann, the former president of the Higher Regional Court of Braunschweig in the state

of Lower Saxony, suggested the lowering of grade requirements for lawyers necessary to become a judge. The reason: women graduate from law school with far better grades than their male counterparts and therefore are eligible in much larger numbers to pursue careers as judges ("Land": 24).

In addition, the political party in power, the conservative CDU/CSU coalition, voted in October 1995 against a quota system within their party that would call for a third of all nominations to be women. Currently, Heide Simonis (SPD) is the only female president of the cabinet council; Jutta Limbach is the only woman in the German supreme court. In 1994, the head organizations of Germany's industry sent out a joint statement discouraging the government from improving women's position in the workplace. They warned the government that equal rights for women would have negative effects on German competitiveness in the global market ("Ohne": 61). Accordingly, the government as well as most corporations are cancelling barely established support programs for women in the working world, citing growing unemployment as the reason.

Trends and Policies for the Future

The European Parliament may act to encourage equal treatment in the workplace, since women have more and stronger voices there than in the German Parliament. In the European Parliament, women can collaborate across party and national lines, and several European countries are much more advanced in questions of equal rights than is Germany. However, some countries are also more conservative. Italy and Great Britain, for example, were the leading force in striking down a suggested quota system in German working law. Some German states, for example Bremen and North Rhine-Westphalia, enacted a quota system in which a woman would be hired over a man for government jobs if both applicants were equally qualified. The quota was supposed to be in place until women and men were equally represented in the government work force. The British representatives at the European Commission, however, argued that preferring equally qualified women over men, even temporarily to achieve equal representation, would disadvantage men. The Italian attorney-general, Giuseppe Tesauro, supports women's rights (i.e., duties!) only for part-time work, maternity leave, flex-time, and tax-breaks for childbirth and child care. Spain and France, on the other hand, have recently developed and successfully implemented programs to enhance equal treatment of women in the workplace. A major step towards that goal was the introduction of free day care centers which have also helped Sweden and Norway to achieve greater

equality. Many hope that Sweden's new membership in the European Union will foster positive changes in the equal rights of women in the work place.

Furthermore, a new trend of workload reductions and/or layoffs in major German companies may increase nationally the need for a double income. Volkswagen (VW) was the first large corporation to cut working hours along with wage reductions in order to avoid major layoffs. VW workers are now working an average of 28.8 hours per week, and other companies are following this model: 32% of all corporations in former West Germany and 22% in former East Germany plan workload reductions and/or layoffs for the near future ("Die atmende Fabrik": 105). This new trend may increase the need for both partners to work, since families will most likely want to maintain their status quo. In addition, more women than ever (40%) find it desirable and economically important for both partners to work full time.

In summary, women are still very much disadvantaged at work, and we can expect to find this reality reflected in business materials.

Representations and Roles of Women in Business Textbooks, Magazines, Advertising and Other Sources of Information

The status of women in the professional world is accurately reflected in the representations of women in business textbooks, magazines, advertising, and other sources of information. In some instances, women's desires for a career are portrayed as a dangerous interference to a well-functioning system. Professor Rudolf Affemann, at the Führungsakademie Baden-Württemberg, for instance, states in his recent book, *Made in Europe*, that the biggest danger for Japanese corporate culture would be a feminist movement in Japan (142). This statement goes hand in hand with the formerly mentioned statement of the head organizations of Germany's industry, that equal rights for women would have negative effects on German competitiveness in the global market.

Of course at this point of discussion the question needs to be raised whether or not it is arrogant to impose values of one culture on another society. However, oppressing groups of lesser power within a society is wrong, no matter what culture may be behind the discrimination. Most people have already accepted the idea of equality for many groups and minorities, but many seem to be very reluctant to give the right of equality to women, possibly because inequality is so deeply ingrained in the structures of almost all societies. Specifically, all kinds of organized religions portray women as having a natural place in society, not as equal

to men, but in a supporting role. On the other hand, the average person most likely would be shocked and outraged to read a quote that would state the following [emphasis added]:

> In cultures where *blacks* do not have status or power and rarely figure in management levels of organizations, people from *black*-equity cultures may have a tendency to view this inequity as morally wrong. In these cases it is important to recognize that "wrong" is a culturally based attitude. Certainly professional *blacks* in the United States find inequity on the basis of *race* unacceptable. But we also recognize that other cultures view *blacks* differently, and they have the right to be different. We would be foolish to think our opinion could or would—or should—change deeply rooted cultural views that are centuries old.

Many political actions in the past have expressed that a majority of people will not accept inequity for minorities based on so-called cultural views. That same fundamental right of equality needs to be applied to women in all cultures. The above quote was altered by replacing the gender references with race references to show the ridiculousness of the statement. The **original** reads like this:

> In cultures where women do not have status or power and rarely figure in management levels of organizations, people from gender-equity cultures may have a tendency to view this inequity as morally wrong. In these cases it is important to recognize that "wrong" is a culturally based attitude. Certainly professional women in the United States find inequity on the basis of gender unacceptable. But we also recognize that other cultures view women differently, and they have the right to be different. We would be foolish to think our opinion could or would—or should—change deeply rooted cultural views that are centuries old (Beamer and Varner 1995: 98).

Unfortunately, similar statements can still be found in several publications as recent as this one. Considering these attitudes, it is not difficult to understand that teaching business language in a non-sexist way is challenging and at the same time very necessary. Not adding a critical component to our teaching of the subject matter means implicitly accepting the situation and not facilitating positive change. Textbooks, tapes, and videos often reflect reality uncritically and do not raise the issue as a problem. Choosing the most popular videos used in Business German

classes[1], we find a homogeneous picture: men hold the powerful positions, do the negotiations, make the decisions, and give orders to the women in the video, who are secretaries or assistants. In *Geschäftskontakte*, for example, Mr. Jung, owner of a furniture store in Northern Germany, is negotiating with Mr. Lind, manager of a medium-sized furniture company in Sweden. The third main character, Ms. Franke, is Mr. Lind's assistant. In *Ein eiliger Grossauftrag*, the main characters are a group of German business men (Mr. Bruns, Mr. Hahn, Mr. Kreft, Mr. Niemand, and Mr. Stein) and a businessman from Sweden (Mr. Skans). Ms. Schuhmacher, the German secretary, and Ms. Nilsson, the Swedish secretary, both play minor, unimportant roles.

Accordingly, this power structure reappears in related activities: language practice, authentic language exercises, readings, and dialogues, as well as in realia throughout the text, in addition to the grammatical exercises. The videos for the most part send the message to our students that men and women have different places in the European business world.

Textbooks are little better.[4] Both types of media neglect to present to students gender discourse and different conversational styles influenced by gender differences in an equal display of power and self-confidence, since the powerful positions, and therefore more powerful conversational styles, are already marked male. Therefore, we automatically frame our female students in a discourse which linguistically weakens the role of women.. In addition, neither the videos nor the textbooks offer feminine endings, pronouns, etc., that is, if we do not add those, our students will not learn that there is actually a word for a female director, executive, etc. In *Wirtschaft - Auf Deutsch*, for example, we find a list of countries and their inhabitants without ever introducing the female endings: i.e., *Land - Schweden; Einwohner - der Schwede*. Even the concept of female endings remains unmentioned:

> Nouns denoting nationality which end in *e* are weak masculine nouns and subsequently take an *n* in all cases except the nominative. *der Deutsche* is a nominalised adjective and hence takes the following forms: *der Deutsche - ein Deutscher* (Nicolas et al. 1991: 91).

Adding the feminine ending has to be a conscious decision, since in German (as in many other languages) the stem is masculine, and the feminine form *-in* has to be added. There is no gender neutral term for "manager" or "supervisor" in German. In the process of writing a two-volume textbook, *German for Business and Economics*, I became aware of the constant conscious effort required to include women grammatically, since we are all so used to and trained to do otherwise. As Tannen (1994)

states, there is a reason behind the common usage of male endings and pronouns:

> But this touting of "he" as the sex-indefinite pronoun is an innovation introduced into English by grammarians in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. In other words, the female was declared by grammarians to be the marked case (112).

In addition to consistently using female endings when appropriate and other grammatical devices that include women grammatically and semantically, we also, in our business textbook, raised the issue of equal rights for women in the workplace as a point of discussion in the cross-cultural training sections, in exercises, texts, and authentic materials.

Particularly in job advertisements, companies almost exclusively use masculine forms when advertising for a higher level or leadership position, thereby implicitly discouraging women from applying. Despite the fact that German law requires non-sexist job advertisements, companies implicitly reveal their obvious preference for a man through linguistic devices.

Advertising, in general, reflects cultural attitudes: in all of the reviewed business magazines, *Wirtschaftswoche*, *Forbes*, *Impulse*, *Manager*, and *Capital*, women rarely appear in advertisements at all. This absence is clearly a reflection of the fact that these magazines are written solely for men. The recent articles on women have been on daughters inheriting businesses—particularly large businesses—from their fathers, perhaps the only way for women to rise to upper management positions.

All of these magazines use male-exclusive grammatical forms. The few advertisements that did feature women portrayed them exclusively in either secretarial roles or as wives or girlfriends serving food or drinks, or waving good-bye, or just appearing decoratively beside a car, motorcycle, etc., and not as business partners or in leadership roles. The German airline, Lufthansa, places many ads for its business class flights in these magazines. The airline portrays male travelers and female flight attendants. Does advertisement reflect the culture accurately? Most definitely! Once on a lucky day having been bumped to business class on a return flight to the US from Germany, I was offered the only available utility bags, designed for men only: shaving supplies and Marbert Man cologne! Obviously there is a need to teach gender equality in language business classes.

Notes

1. The following statistical information throughout the article is from GLOBUS Kartendienst GmbH, unless otherwise noted.

2. The buying power of an American Dollar in comparison to a German Mark is 2.24 as of January 1996; in other words, the buying power of 200 DM is approximately $90 US.

3. For example, *Ein eiliger Grossauftrag* (1989); *Messegespräche* (1990); *Eine Reklamation* (1990); *Gründung einer Tochterfirma* (1991) published by Goethe Institut; and *Geschäftskontakte* (1991) published by Langenscheidt.

4. For example, Nicolas, Sprenger, Weermann. *Wirtschaft-auf Deutsch, 1991*. Clay. *Geschäftsdeutsch*, 1995. Merrifield. *Deutsche Wirtschaftssprache für Amerikaner*, 1989. Bolten. *Marktchance Wirtschaftsdeutsch*, 1994.

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6

Foreign Language Across the Curriculum: Achieving Language Proficiency Through Reading

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Foreign Language Across the Curriculum: A Rationale

As a result of research in language acquisition and reading, the last decade has seen the development of some 25-30 Foreign Language Across the Curriculum (FLAC) programs at institutions such as St. Olaf, Earlham, Binghamton, and the universities of Rhode Island, Connecticut, and Minnesota, just to name a few. This new movement provides students who want to continue work in foreign languages with alternatives to exclusive concentration on literature courses. These programs differ in structure to a lesser or greater degree, but they all combine content and a second language.

FLAC provides for the application of students' foreign language skills in other disciplinary areas, thereby demonstrating the relevance of a foreign language outside the foreign language classroom. It is a means of enhancing language proficiency and cultural knowledge and a means of engaging in discourse analysis, that is, observing how different communities (disciplines) communicate. It also increases student exposure to and awareness of cultural and linguistic perspectives other than their own.

Existing Language Across the Curriculum programs have stated program goals such as creating ties between the foreign language faculty and faculty members from other departments, encouraging students to pursue

their foreign language study beyond the minimum requirement, and showing students the relevance of foreign languages in other fields of studies. But beyond these worthwhile goals is the further benefit of expanding the students' communicative competence. By dealing with subjects such as history, biology, ecology, philosophy, and music in another language, the students have the opportunity to experience realistic communication situations, to learn the forms and codes particular to the various disciplines in the target language—developing what Frank Ryan (1994) calls "multicultural interpretation skills." In addition to the high-level language skills, cultural knowledge, and interpretation skills one can acquire through FLAC activities, students can learn how to participate in a professional community in the target culture. "A student is judged successful in a non-language course when she can communicate the facts, processes, theories, and procedures of the discipline in the way that is considered appropriate among current members of the discipline community. A major part of being a member of a professional community is being able to 'talk the talk'" (Ryan 1994: 52).

FLAC programs do not need to be limited to higher education, however. In fact, some of the student abilities listed in the recently published *Standards for Foreign Language Learning* are exactly the goals and outcomes of FLAC programs. Particularly relevant to FLAC goals are standards 2.1 ("Students demonstrate an understanding of the relationship between the practices and perspectives of the culture studied"); 3.1 ("Students reinforce and further their knowledge of other disciplines through the foreign language"); and 3.2 ("Students acquire information and recognize the distinctive viewpoints that are only available through the foreign language and its culture").

FLAC at Birmingham-Southern College

Birmingham-Southern College has recently begun a Foreign Language Across the Curriculum program that adds foreign language readings and discussion sections to disciplinary courses. Two FLAC courses are currently underway: one, in French, for a cellular and molecular biology course and another, in German, for a history course on modern Germany. In the case of the biology course, the French professor developed the course with a biology professor who had worked at the Institut Pasteur in Paris and thus had a keen interest in the French culture and language. Selected readings for this course include one of Pasteur's letters ("*Influence de l'oxygène sur le*

développement de la levure et la fermentation alcoolique"), a selection of magazine and newspaper articles dealing with the AIDS virus and its social and political repercussions in France, a magazine article addressing the birth and spread of new viruses on the planet (e.g., ebola), and a scientific article written by François Jacob and Jacques Monod et al. The particular objectives of this project are to help students recognize and understand the contributions of the French in the sciences and to show them that their foreign language background, especially their reading skills, allows them to access texts which would otherwise remain inaccessible.

The modern Germany course provides students the opportunity to read articles and sections of German history books written by recognized historians. Some of these authors are so important that their books have been translated into English, but non-translated sources are particularly sought after. Students are not only exposed to discourse in the field of German history, they are exposed to "German" approaches to the history of Germany. One student reported that after reading a selection on conditions in Germany after World War I she, for the first time, had seen the other perspective, i.e., she experienced a sympathetic feeling for Germany. Other authentic sources used in this FLAC course include diary entries of Adolf Hitler and Konrad Adenauer and personal accounts of concentration camp survivors.

Students who choose to participate in the FLAC program at Birmingham-Southern College enroll in the content course and meet in addition once a week with the language professor to discuss the assigned reading. The students earn an extra ¼ unit language credit for the FLAC component. Thanks to a grant from the National Endowment for the Humanities, we are in the process of developing six additional FLAC courses for the 1996-97 academic year and will be covering areas as diverse as philosophy, education, astronomy, political science, ecology, and history.

Critics or skeptics question whether a language teacher can, without formal training in the discipline, "teach" history, biology, or any other discipline. In this particular program, the language teacher is not teaching the discipline per se, but is teaching interpretive and communicative strategies and the particular content of the chosen text, not the entire field of another discipline. As Swaffar et al. (1991: 236) state: "Language teachers don't need to be historians or business specialists to teach history or business as long as we can agree on the frames of reference our students should uncover when learning about history and business."

FLAC and Reading Proficiency

FLAC allows students to apply and recognize the benefits of L2 acquisition as they use their second language reading proficiency to acquire knowledge in other fields of study. In addition, the reading activities undertaken in the program can help student communication in general.

Foreign language pedagogy professionals who have been studying the process of reading in a second language have generally come to the conclusion that reading can serve as a means by which communicative competence is achieved. "Reading researchers agree that the interpretative competence learners gain through interaction with written text is more than merely a desirable by-product of language learning, it is a necessary condition for the development of higher-order thinking skills and increasing language competence . . ." (Musumeci 1993: 170). Therefore, we need to retain the emphasis on reading in L2 instruction, but our approach to reading in foreign language instruction must be rethought. "We know that L2 reading is not reading aloud, translating, or grammatical analysis of text. The reading process involves questioning, predicting, searching for relationships among pieces of information, inferring, judging and elaborating" (Musumeci 1993: 173).

What can we do to change our approach to reading and how can a foreign language text be accessed more effectively by students? A few factors should be taken into consideration.

First, reading, which has traditionally been treated as an individual responsibility—a task conducted outside of class—should be practiced in the classroom. Students need to be guided through various strategies before being asked to employ them on their own.

Secondly, we teachers can teach the connections between language and the ability to manipulate language to analyze and speculate. Students who hear and read about verbally-created worlds are forced to practice mental and verbal reconstructions of the logical coherences of a reality other than that of their immediate physical environment, and they learn to interpret the cues and clues that form and genre contribute to communication (Swaffar et al. 1991: 2; Ryan 1994: 53).

And thirdly, students should have such exposure from the outset of their second language instruction.

Interactive Reading

First-language reading research has led to the development of various models of reading comprehension. Barnett (1989) has presented a comprehensive review of many reading models in both first and second language

reading. According to her, there are three basic types of models. One type is the "bottom-up models" which, as Alice Omaggio Hadley summarizes (1993: 195), are essentially "text-driven" and in which the reader starts at the word level and works up to decoding the entire text. The second type is the "top-down models," and the reader, rather than the text, drives comprehension by applying knowledge of effective reading strategies, familiarity with genre and topic, and the ability to use context to get gist and details. Patricia Carrell (1988) cautions against exclusive use of either of these models, because if the bias is knowledge-based, a reader tends to fill in details not occasioned by the text and may make unsupported inferences, and if the bias is text-based (bottom-up), readers tend to exclude inferential thinking. Either bias can lead to inaccurate comprehension. Therefore, she endorses Barnett's third type of reading models which Carrell calls "bidirectional processing" or a blend of knowledge-based and text-based processing. This last category posits an interaction between text and reader.

Gerard Westhoff (1991: 30-31) lists five "fields" of knowledge involved in top-down processing:

1. probable letter combinations
2. probable course of sentences (knowledge of sentence structure)
3. probable word combinations
4. probable structural relations
5. common knowledge (everyday knowledge about the world).

Maintaining that foreign language readers can draw on a reserve of knowledge in fields 4 and 5 (normally independent of language) to compensate for their knowledge gaps in the language-bound fields 1 to 3, he adds, ". . . the linguistic ceiling is only one determinant of reading comprehension. The fact that it can be overridden indicates that it is not a fixed or static proficiency, but is rather a relative proficiency" (Westhoff 1991: 32).

In order for students to achieve advanced level competencies, they should be instructed in practicing top down and interactive approaches. Students' natural inclination is to take a bottom-up approach: using their dictionaries and starting at the word level, progressing to the sentence level, and (maybe) reaching the paragraph level. This approach alone, however, does not achieve the desired outcomes. Students need to learn how to use what they already know in order to assimilate the content of the text and be able to analyze it.

When Shall We Begin?

Such arguments indicate that effective reading can take place almost from the beginning of language instruction. We do not have to wait until the students are "ready" to read. For if input is limited to what students can be expected to produce in their own speech, then the language for listening, reading, and writing is restricted (Swaffar et al. 1991: 29). The key, researchers agree, is to access students' knowledge of the world and especially their interests. Familiarity with textual subject matter is important because it seems to compensate for low language proficiency. Thus, differences in reading "proficiency" frequently depend on what it is students are reading about rather than on their language level.

Westhoff sees little point in spending much time on traditional grammar, vocabulary, or word-recognition exercises, and Swaffar et al. (1991: 117) stress the importance of encouraging problem-solving attitudes "such as persistence (keep on reading!), linking global concepts to textual detail, and identifying the structure of messages implied by linguistic patterns." Teachers, in order to encourage such attitudes, must avoid putting up obstacles to the natural process. As Westhoff (1991: 32) states, we must "forgo such negative approaches as demanding very careful reading, discouraging guessing, tolerating no mistakes, and insisting that every word be read perfectly." Instead, he argues, learners should be encouraged not only to check their hypotheses but also to accept some uncertainty at times.

Methods

With these ideas in mind, a few factors need to be taken into consideration when teachers approach reading in the foreign language classroom. First, one needs to remember that reading is an interactive process involving at least three interrelated factors on the reader's part: the individual's knowledge of the linguistic code, cognitive skills of various types, and the individual's knowledge of the world. As Hadley (1993: 197) states, the importance of considering our students as individuals who approach a text with differing background knowledge, interests, motivations, skills, and strategies becomes clear when one considers the interactive nature of reading. In order to help students become more efficient and more successful readers, adds Hadley, teachers need to keep such factors in mind. They also need to think about both the purposes for which students might be reading and the reading skills, strategies, and processes involved in achieving these purposes.

Another element that should be carefully considered when we choose a text to read in class is the fact that specialists advise the use of authentic

material (Hadley 1993: 198). Simplifying texts reduces their natural redundancy and might actually make them more difficult to read. Authentic written materials should be presented, if possible, in their original form to allow students to use nonlinguistic cues to interpret their meaning. In fact, logical reasoning seems to enhance learning. Brinton et al. (1989: 90) list criteria for text selection: authenticity of content, authenticity of task, ability to engage student interest, difficulty level, accessibility, availability, and packaging (layout aids comprehension).

Once texts have been selected, appropriate tasks and activities must be designed and used. Phillips (1984) notes that a wide range of practice activities might be used in concert to integrate individual skills so that higher levels of proficiency might be achieved. She developed a five-stage plan for reading instruction that can be used either in the classroom, in individualized instructional settings, or in computer-adaptive instruction. The five stages she identifies are

1. pre-teaching/preparation
2. skimming/scanning
3. decoding/intensive reading
4. comprehension
5. transferring/integrating skills.

The pre-teaching stage is important because, as Phillips points out, students need to build expectancies for the material that they are about to read. Before tackling a poem, for example, one could ask the students in the target language if they like poetry, who their favorite poet is, and why. The teacher could also ask what they think a poem is and how it differs from a prose passage. These questions should provide a means for introducing students to some technical vocabulary which will subsequently allow them to discuss the poem. At the pre-reading stage also, hearing a text read (on a recording or live, by the teacher) could be used at the outset to stress the importance of rhythm, rhymes, and various sonorities.

Another pre-reading exercise could start with a discussion of the title of the text. For example, "*Le raciste*," a cognate that all students can recognize, is a good starting point for a lively discussion on the main theme of that text.

The greatest problem students encounter when they face a new text is the difficulty of new vocabulary words. In order to alleviate this hurdle, before assigning the reading the teacher can hand out a list of the new words

introduced in the text. This list could be accompanied by appropriate definitions. After reading the words and their definitions, students could be given illustrations of the various words and be asked to match the new words with their corresponding illustrations.

At the pre-reading stage also, provided the text is illustrated by drawings or photos, students could be asked to look at those alone and to anticipate the content of the text. That exercise will force them to come up with words that will allow them to discuss the text later.

Hadley (1993) notes that the skimming and scanning stages are distinct processes involving getting the gist (skimming) and locating specific information (scanning). An appropriate activity for the skimming stage would be the decoding of various official documents: students could look at a driver's license, a passport, and a student ID card, for instance, and decide the function of each document. Students could also have to explain how a television schedule is organized (channels, times, titles).

At the scanning stage, the same television schedule could be used, but students would have to look for the time of a specific movie, for example. Michelin guidebooks can be used for scanning practice. Students must classify a number of hotels according to various criteria. These criteria could be organized in columns (e.g., expensive, moderate, cheap/ luxurious, comfortable/ in the city, in a quiet location, ...), and after having compared the list of hotels, students have to chose their favorite hotel given a specific situation (romantic get-away, student touring Europe, ...).

The objective of the intensive reading stage is to learn meaning of unknown words using contextual cues. The teacher can help students become better contextual guessers by teaching them to approach unknown words or expressions with specific strategies such as identifying cognates and figuring out what part of speech the word must be (using the context and the morphology as clues). The teacher can also ask them to check whether the word is used elsewhere or if a contrast or analogy can help them derive meaning. Students can also be guided to learn to use their own knowledge of the world or of the specific context to deduce possible meanings of the word.

The intensive reading stage aims at a better understanding of discourse structure. After having read the text carefully, students learn to interpret the force of connectors as well as the relationship among sentences or sentence elements. A text that works well for this purpose is General de Gaulle's speech "*Appel aux Français*." The text has a clear tri-partite structure that is repeated throughout. The strict organization of de Gaulle's text makes his speech so clear that the reader/listener can predict the order of his thought process. Students also see the rhetorical consequences (clarity, efficacy,

persuasion) of a particular textual organization.

The comprehension stage is the opportunity for the teacher to determine if students have achieved their reading purpose(s). Post-reading activities can be both oral and written. The teacher could, for instance, ask the students to write a composition addressing the dominant themes of the text, but without allowing them to copy direct passages. A summary is also a good way for a teacher to find out whether students have understood the text. Interactive oral activities can also take place at this point. The teacher could ask students to debate two points of view raised or to enact a scene somewhat parallel to a situation presented in the text. If the sequencing of the texts allows it, the post-reading stage can also be used for the pre-reading stage of another text.

Conclusion

If students are taught to use such techniques and to develop their higher-order abilities from the very beginning (initially dealing with texts that access their knowledge and interests), they should then be in a position to read and use L2 texts in all disciplines and thereby be able to use the language to learn. If they are well trained, they will more naturally employ reading strategies that are interactive and knowledge based when faced with texts outside their fields of knowledge and interest. And students will be in a position to take advantage of Foreign Language Across the Curriculum, whether it be program-based or simply in principle.

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